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Can the Malaysian Inland Revenue Board become a learning organisation: issues of bureaucracy, culture and change

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**Can the Malaysian Inland Revenue Board Become a Learning
Organisation: Issues of Bureaucracy, Culture and Change**

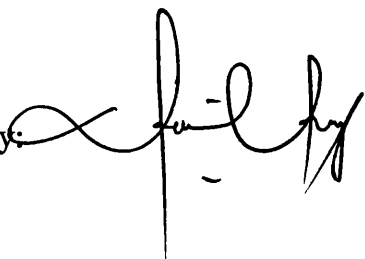
Submitted by Mastora Yahya
For the degree of PhD
Of the University of Bath
2001

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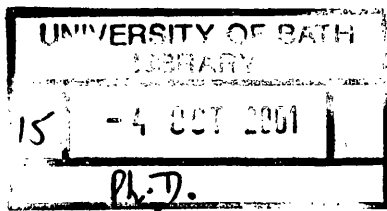
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*"Knowledge is better than riches,
for knowledge guards you while you guard riches.
Knowledge governs while riches are governed.
Riches diminish with spending but knowledge increases with it."*

~Ali Abi Talib~

ABSTRACT

The impact of globalisation on taxation remains a critical challenge in the 21st century, which leaves tax organisations no choice, but to be more receptive to changes. In response to the rapidly changing environment, the importance of informal learning is the central theme of this thesis. The study investigates the possibility of government agencies such as Malaysian Inland Revenue Board (MIRB) of becoming a learning organisation. The key issues discussed in this research are the extent to which bureaucratic organisations can promote or inhibit learning which is important in building a learning organisation. Relevant issues such as culture, power devolution and trust which are often ignored or taken for granted are given due consideration in this research. The limitations on learning in a bureaucratic organisation are also highlighted.

The empirical investigation for this research combines both qualitative and quantitative approaches, using multiple methods such as surveys, interviews, observations and document analysis. The qualitative approach is used to generate in-depth explanations for the quantitative patterns of the survey data and hence it illuminates the 'hard data'. The data obtained from one method is cross-examined using another method as a form of triangulation.

The findings show that the development of elements of a learning organisation can address MIRB's current problems and has great potential in helping the organisation to cope with intricate issues of evasion and globalisation. Thus, the success of creating a learning organisation lies in the capability of the organisation in managing the rigidities and tensions that exist in a bureaucratic organisation and the ideals of a learning organisation.

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ACROYNMS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CATA	Commonwealth Association of Tax Administrators
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
DDG	Deputy Director General
DG	Director General
DTA	Double Taxation Agreements
ED	Employee Development
EDB	Economic Development Board
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
GTAC	General Tax Administration Course
HRM	Human Resources Development
IO	Investigation Officer
IOFC	International Offshore Financial Centre
MCS	Malayan Civil Service
MIRB	Malaysian Inland Revenue Board
MIRD	Malaysian Inland Revenue Department
NIC	Newly Industrialised Countries
NTA	National Tax Academy
OG	Other Group
PAYE	Pay As You Earn
SAGATA	Study Group on Asian Tax Administration and Research
SG	Salary Group
TQM	Total Quality Management
QC	Quality Circle

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This thesis examines the extent to which the Malaysian Inland Revenue Board (MIRB) can become a learning organisation. This involves examining two fundamental questions. The first, is the degree to which a public organisation like MIRB which by definition must have elements such as: transparency in dealing with the public, treating equals equally and showing proper caution with public finances, can become a learning organisation¹. This form of organisation typically involves greater autonomy in individual and team decision-making and a high degree of risk taking and mistake making in the interests of learning. The second, is the degree to which an organisation like MIRB can overcome its culture, which is a reflection of well established Malay culture, based on hierarchy and deference to leaders to take on some of the key characteristics of a learning organisation. What makes this research more complicated is that bureaucracy and culture are interrelated in MIRB making it likely that Western ideals of learning organisations may be difficult to realise. It should be emphasised that elements of bureaucracy are essential to MIRB regarding transparency, treating people equally and to fight against corruption. However, with respect to learning the crucial issue is the degree to which the organisation can adapt key elements of flexibility suggested by the learning organisation literature.

In the West, the heavy criticism and perceived rigidities of bureaucracy and the various criticisms of it have given rise to new forms of organisation as alternatives.

¹ The problem for learning organisations in which power is highly devolved and decision-making may be highly idiosyncratic, where like may not be treated with like. For discussion of these issues see Chapter 2.

The Burns and Stalker (1961) model of organic and mechanistic organisation gives an alternative which has been further developed in terms of the concept of learning organisation. In the 1990's, the concept of learning organisations became popular and indeed has been seen to be a solution for most organisations in the private sector to maintain competitiveness. As Garavan (1997) has pointed out the idea of learning organisations represents a shift to the development and growth of our understanding of organisations.

The wind of change is global and people are enthusiastic about changing organisations with bureaucratic structures into flatter ones reflecting an emphasis on the utilisation of human resources and especially learning. Not only are organisations in the private sector influenced by this change but public organisations are also seeking to change. Kaur, Thirumanickam and Rani (1995) argued that the civil service in Malaysia needs to be changed as they felt that,

...the postcolonial bureaucratic approach with its outmoded and obsolete practices should be discarded and new and modern management practices should be introduced (p. 1).

The above statement is interesting within the context of Malaysian bureaucracy in particular. Is the state bureaucracy so totally obsolete that it needs to be so radically changed? Although the postcolonial bureaucracy of Malaysia may be regarded as 'outmoded and obsolete' its historical development and current situation cannot be taken for granted. The uniqueness of the Malaysian bureaucracy can be traced from its historical roots and any attempt at reforming it has to take account of its roots and culture.

What significance would the learning organisation concept be to MIRB? Learning is crucial to MIRB not only because of the complexity of tax laws but more serious are

the issues of globalisation. The impact of globalisation on any tax organisation would ultimately leave MIRB little choice but to respond to those challenges. As Tanzi (2001) pointed out the challenges to tax administrators and policymakers will be to face the “fiscal termites” that gnaw away at the foundations of the tax systems. He also predicted that “in the future, globalisation will lead to new, innovative ways to use technology and knowledge to raise tax revenues”. Taxation is a complex and sophisticated field that requires formal and tacit learning and looking at Tanzi’s prediction innovation will be crucial in any tax organisation. This thesis proposes that informal learning is crucial to MIRB in building a learning organisation. There are many aspects of working in MIRB that can promote learning as much as there are barriers of learning in the organisation. How the organisation manages and supports learning depends on how effectively knowledge is acquired and transfer within the organisation, across all levels.

In every aspect of life there are bound to be underlying cultural issues. A case study of MIRB, an organisation in a different cultural setting will provide interesting data on cross-cultural perspectives on learning organisations. In the study of public economy and public finance, very little is written on tax administration, thus it is assumed that managing tax organisations is a trivial problem. The problems of tax administration are rarely discussed in most journals on taxation. One of the reasons for this is that to write about tax administration requires an intimate knowledge of how the system works. This knowledge can only be acquired by years of practical experience with the organisation (Tanzi, 1992).

A tax system that is not administrable is not much worth. The theoretically most perfect tax system in the world becomes a bad system if the intention expressed in the law is distorted by the practice (Tanzi, 1992: iii).

An in-depth understanding of how tax administration works is crucial, because solutions can only be suggested if the whole operation is understood. In this study, the researcher will identify the problems of MIRB and assess the degree to which the concept of a learning organisation can be extended to MIRB as a potential tool for solving its internal problems and coping with globalisation. The analysis of problems in MIRB is taken in light of the bureaucratic nature of the organisation and the ideals of a learning organisation. Ultimately, the researcher will try to put MIRB on a scale as to how it fares between these two ideal forms of organisations as the basis for considering how it can be further developed.

1.2 Aims and Objectives of the Study

The purpose of the study emerged from the problems identified in MIRB, which was diagnosed in an early phase of this research. The literature on learning organisations signals an interesting alternative for MIRB in trying to solve some of its problems.

The general objective is to investigate the possibilities of creating a learning organisation in government agencies and MIRB is used as a case study in this research. The specific objectives of this research are:

- i. to investigate the potential of MIRB to approximate to a learning organisation.
- ii. to investigate factors that promote or impede learning in the organisation.
- iii. to identify the appropriate kind of organisational foundations for learning in MIRB.

- iv. to relate learning to the career structure and incentives within the organisation.
- v. to attempt to contribute to a theory of learning organisation for government agencies.
- vi. to make practical recommendations to MIRB on how to improve learning and keeping up with knowledge.

1.3 The Significance of the Study

The significance of the proposed research lies in the fact that government agencies are in an unusual situation in some respects. They are slow in recognising the need for change and adapting themselves to the changing environment. Often they need to follow bureaucratic procedures in dealing with the public in the delivery of services. Because they are required to treat the public impartially at all times, this means there is a set of rules and procedures that will have to be applied to everyone. At the same time, the literature on learning organisations emphasises that such bureaucratic features can impede learning. The significance of the study is therefore, one of how to reconcile the necessary bureaucratic aspects of government agencies with the need to be a learning organisation. That balance is indeed delicate.

The application of concepts, which are mostly used in the private sector, has recently gained popularity in the public sector. In the enthusiasm for change and improvement this case study should give ideas and lessons for other government agencies. Therefore, this research presents an opportunity to test the validity of the learning organisation concepts in government agencies in general and MIRB in particular. The outcome will have implications for the organisation if it is serious in

the pursuit of learning. Integrating learning into all aspects of work has the potential to improve the quality of service, becoming more customer oriented, and applying new technology and continually improving the organisation in response to changing circumstances. Finally, it is hoped that the outcome of the research will enable policy makers to seriously consider changes that will promote learning in state organisations. The study may have flow-on implications for other public organisations because of the similarities shared by them.

1.4 Organisation of the Thesis

There are 8 interrelated chapters in this thesis:

Chapter 2 provides a brief historical background of Malaysia in general, the history of Malaysian bureaucracy and the development of Malaysia tax system in particular. The historical evolution of the Malaysian bureaucracy is vital to understand as it allows us to identify the main features and distinguishing characteristics which have shaped MIRB. This chapter also aims to give an overview of the Malaysian Inland Revenue Board and its problem. On the whole, this chapter acts as a springboard for the whole research.

Because MIRB is essentially a bureaucracy, Chapter 3 of the thesis reviews the literature on bureaucracy to give a deeper understanding of bureaucratic organisations. The literature review concerns Weber's theoretical framework and more recent work on bureaucracy. However, due to the wide literature on bureaucracy the focus is on the literature relevant to the research and in particular learning in bureaucracies. The literature covers four aspects of bureaucracy which are relevant to this research that are: human nature, intelligence and motivation;

power, control and co-ordination; management-employee relationships and trust; and finally, learning and knowledge in bureaucracy.

Chapter 4 presents the literature on learning organisations, which forms the gist of the research. The various dimensions of learning organisations are discussed in detail. The work of proponents of learning organisations like Senge (1990) from America and Pedler *et al* (1992) and Handy (1993) from UK are reviewed and criticised to develop insights as to what a learning organisation means. The theoretical framework of this thesis is developed out of this chapter, which will be used as the framework to analyse the empirical data.

Chapter 5 explains the methodology employed in this research. The discussion is centred on the choice of case study as a research approach. Why the research uses multiple methods of data collection is also explained. The various instruments used are described in detail presenting the strength and weakness of each instrument. The research process is also described in detail to give a clearer view on the empirical aspect of the study. Finally, issues such as access, ethics and reflexivity within the context of a Malaysian organisation in general and MIRB in particular is discussed.

Chapters 6 and 7 provide the analysis and discussion of the empirical data. In Chapter 6, data collected through the self-administered questionnaires are analysed using SPSS. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and means are used as initial analysis. The analysis is further extended using statistical tests such as Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and t-test to examine the relationships between independent and dependent variables. The data generates trends and patterns based on the opinions of the respondents. It also gives an indication as to which issues need further

investigation. Chapter 7 represents the qualitative aspect of the research. The data was collected using instruments such as interviews, observations and document analysis. The qualitative data gives a deeper understanding of the 'hard data' obtained in the survey. The open-ended responses obtained from the questionnaires are also analysed in this chapter.

Finally, the thesis gives an overall conclusion in Chapter 8, by summarising what the research has achieved and highlighting the results from the empirical work. This chapter also focuses on how MIRB should manage the various tensions in overcoming the barriers to building a learning organisation. Towards the end of the chapter some policy changes are suggested and the chapter wraps up with a discussion on the final thoughts of the research.

1.5 Summary

This chapter has outlined the rationale for undertaking this research and the process by which the research objectives will be achieved. The overview of the whole thesis has been presented in this chapter and from here we will proceed to provide the background to the study.

CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

2.1 Introduction

The aims of this chapter are to give a general background to the Malaysian bureaucracy, the development of the Malaysian Tax System and its enforcement authority (MIRB). It begins with an introduction of the demographic background to Malaysia, followed by its historical narratives of the bureaucracy during colonialism. This then, brings us to the history of Malaysia's Tax System during the colonial period and traces its development. It is important to go through the historical roots of this organisation to understand and appreciate the organisation's current problems. The focus here is specifically on the role of MIRB, the organisational set up, work organisation and its problems.

The organisational set up of MIRB and its problems will be highlighted as a basis for this research. It is interesting to note that the present Malaysia tax legislation still shares many similarities with British Tax Law. The Malaysian tax law is no less complex than the British tax law although various attempts at tax simplification are being made. This introduction will help us to appreciate why tax administration not only in Malaysia, but world-wide needs a better management system to cope with current issues, such as globalisation. Indeed, Tanzi (2000) points out that there is a growing literature on the fragility of existing tax systems in the face of developing trends. In particular, it is likely that as time passes, the impact of globalisation on tax revenue will accelerate, and will become evident. The issue of globalisation and taxation will remain a critical challenge in the 21st century, which leaves tax organisations no choice, but to be more receptive to change.

2.2 Background of Malaysia

2.2.1 Geographical Information

Malaysia is a nation in South East Asia, which comprises of 2 main components; the Peninsular Malaysia (West Malaysia), which is a part of mainland South East Asia and the states of Sabah and Sarawak (East Malaysia) on the island of Borneo. There are 11 states in Peninsular Malaysia, which covers an area of 50,806 square miles. The capital city is Kuala Lumpur, and was designated as a Federal Territory in 1974. About 82 percent of Malaysia's population reside in Peninsular Malaysia and roughly 8 percent of the population reside in Sabah, and 9 percent reside in Sarawak.

The population of Malaysia in year 2000 was about 23.25 million, of which native ethnic groups (*bumiputras*) accounted for 58.5 percent, Chinese 24.1 percent, Indians 6.8 percent, others 3 percent and 7.5 percent are non citizens (Malaysia Economic Report, 1999-2000). The population has been shifting in its distribution from rural to urban, though it is still predominantly rural. The largest population group, which is the native ethnic, comprises of several groups of aboriginal people, natives and the early settlers of Malaya.

2.2.2 Economy

Malaysia is one of the world's leading producers of tin, natural rubber, oil palm, and tropical lumber. The major part of Malaysian economy relies on the production and export of raw materials. However, the country has made great steps in attempting to

diversify its economy and to encourage the growth of modern industries and services. In 1993, it was estimated that 21 percent of the labour force was engaged in agriculture and other primary industries, 23 percent in manufacturing, 7 percent in construction, 25 percent in services including public utilities and trade, 11 percent in government, and 20 percent in miscellaneous occupations (Malaysia Economic Report, 1994).

2.3 A Brief History of British Rule and Bureaucracy in Malaysia

Prior to the British colonisation, Malaya was under the rule of Portuguese in 1511, followed by the Dutch in 1641 before it was taken over by the British. The British presence in this region during the 18th century was partly because they wanted to trade and at the same time checking French power in the Indian Ocean. The early involvement of the British in Malaya began when Penang Island was leased to the English East India Company in 1786, and Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles, a company administrator, founded Singapore¹ in 1819. Under the Anglo-Dutch Treaty of 1824, Britain secured Malacca from the Dutch and in return renounced its claims to Sumatra and nearby smaller islands. The three states, Singapore, Penang, and Malacca collectively became the Straits Settlements in 1826, and were placed under the administration of Britain (McTaggart, 1998).

Although British initial interest was to seek trade, it gradually developed into getting control of the local administration and politics of the state. In the mid 19th Century, tin-mining activity expanded in the Malaya Peninsula, and territorial disputes emerged between the Malay rulers and the Chinese immigrant. Fearful that these disputes might disrupt trade, the British took control of the peninsular states,

working indirectly through the rulers. Using diplomacy and taking advantage of dynastic quarrels among the Malay rulers, the British persuaded them to accept British 'advisors', who dictated policy. Before World War II (1939-1945), the native states were classified as either federated or unfederated, with British control somewhat looser in the unfederated states. The British top administrator was a high commissioner, who was also the governor of the Straits Settlements (McTaggart, 1998).

The British colonial impact on Malaysia, especially West Malaysia while not always positive, but was profound. They were directly or indirectly responsible for the establishment of the plantation system and the commercialisation of agriculture, the framework for the present day transportation system, multi-racial society, the introduction of an English educational system and modern political institutions.

2.3.1 The Impact of Colonialism

The British presence in the region reflected several patterns: direct colonial rule in the Straits Settlements, more indirect control in some of the east-coast Malay sultanates, and family or corporate control in Borneo. Changes can be seen through the transformation of the various states, socially and economically. The British allowed the Malay rulers to retain their symbolic status at the apex of an aristocratic social system, although they lost some of their political authority and independence. British officials believed that the Malay peasants needed to be protected from economic and cultural change and that traditional class divisions should be maintained. Hence, most economic development was left to Chinese and Indian

¹ Singapore at that time was part of Peninsular Malaya and later separated from Malaysia as an independent state in 1963.

immigrants, as long as it served long-term colonial interests. The Malay elite, on the other hand, enjoyed a place in the new colonial order as civil servants.

Between 1800 and 1941, several million Chinese entered Malaya, Sarawak, and British North Borneo to work as labourers, miners, planters, and merchants. South Indian Tamils were imported as the workforce in Malayan rubber estates. The Malays accounted for 90 percent of Malaya's population in 1800, but by 1911 they constituted only about 60 percent. This led to the development of a pluralistic society with most Malays in villages, Chinese in towns and Indians on plantations. Colonial authorities skilfully used 'divide and rule' tactics to maintain their control. The colonial policy had actually segmented the society, based on their economic activities. The Chinese became part of a prosperous, urban middle class that controlled retail trade, the Malay joined the occupation in the government services and the Indians were mostly in the estate and plantation regions.

The various ethnic groups generally lived in their own neighbourhoods, followed different occupations, practised their own religions, spoke their own languages, operated their own schools, and later formed their own political organisations. Some Chinese, Malays, and Indians benefited from British economic policies, while others enjoyed no improvement or saw living standards drop. The elite Malay aristocrats were brought into the higher administrative level of the Malayan Civil Service (MCS) in 1904. The first nine Malays are the four sons of the Sultan of Perak while five others were settlement officers, whose rank was of the same plane with cadets and junior officers when held by Europeans. The MCS which was created by the British after 1914, was more of a ruling group rather than a bureaucratic group (Heussler, 1981)

Looking back at the history and evolution of Malaysian bureaucracy, Yusoff (1994) categorises the administrative reforms in the Malaysian public service into three main periods. The first phase of reform was during the colonial period where the policies were more in line with British interests during colonisation. Although, the British had their own agenda, their model of bureaucracy was more sophisticated, and this advanced government machinery had replaced the traditional system that was previously controlled by the Malay rulers. This new form of organisation, a bureaucracy as a form of administration is significant in the history of Malaysian Public Service, because it laid down the basic principles of modern public administration and a modern system of collecting taxes. The Westernisation process in the 19th century by the British marked the beginning of the modern era for the Malaysian Public Service.

The second phase of reform began after the Malaya's achieved its independence in 1957 and continued up until the 1970s, but during that period the political masters were still largely influenced by the British. During this period, the emphasis was more towards nation building and socio-economic development. As a result of these new roles, the size and magnitude of the government agencies became more complex. The third phase of reform was in the 1980s under the rule of Prime Minister, Mahathir Mohamad where the Look East Policy with the introduction of the Japanese work ethic was infused into the minds and attitudes of public employees. Impressed by the success of the Japanese economy, he further introduced Japanese managerial concepts such as KAIZEN² to Malaysian organisations.

² KAIZEN is a concept, which propounds the philosophy of continuous improvement (total quality improvement).

Yusoff (1994) stressed that it is during the Mahathir's era that the most important managerial reforms have occurred in the Malaysian Public Service. The whole nation was driven to practice the work ethic and culture of the Japanese and the importance of the Asian values were highlighted especially in public organisations. However, there were also other concepts such as Malaysia Incorporation³ and Western models of privatisation were implemented, where significant changes took place during this period.

The latest phase of the reform started in the early 1990s when the nation saw the revival of Islamic managerial practices and values in public organisations, where these changes were especially associated with the former Deputy Prime Minister, Anwar Ibrahim. Mansor and Ali (1998) in their study showed that the instilling of Islamic Managerial values⁴ was in fact a success in some private enterprises, as well as public organisations. The impact of these traditional values of the Malay's culture, the spread of Islam, colonisation of the British, the influx of immigrants and the various reforms made in the government machinery had shaped the national culture. Thus, this has further created common values that penetrate into the workplace, forming a unique organisational culture of Malaysian organisations today.

2.3.2 Key Cultural Values in Malaysia

Islam, was first brought in to the state of Malacca in the 15th century, and soon became the dominant religion of the Malays. The introduction of Western culture in

³ Malaysia Incorporation refers to the co-operation between the public and private organisations in which one of the objectives is to stimulate economic growth.

⁴ Mansor and Ali (1998) highlighted that self disciplined, motivation, teamwork, honesty, sincerity and consensus in decision making were among the Islamic values introduced in most Malaysian organisation. Advocating these values would therefore require no formal rules and regulation in controlling workers.

the 19th century affected many aspects of the Malays' community life, in terms of law and order, social organisation, and economic activities. Consequently, the contemporary Malay culture is multifaceted, consisting of many strands of animistic, early Hindu, early and modern Islamic values. The evidence of such influences can be clearly seen in urban society. Apart from the dominant Malay population, the influx of Chinese and Indian immigrants into Malaya also brought various cultural traits, which later contributed to a diverse national culture in Malaysia after independence.

It is essential to give an overview of the present Malaysian society cultural elements because these issues relating to culture will surface in the latter part of this research. Therefore, it is important that the Malaysian work practices should be understood in the context of Confucian values, Islamic values and Western values (Mansor and Ali, 1998). Based on various studies (Abdullah, 1992a, 1992b; Abdullah, Singh and Beng, 1992; Hallinger, 1998; Mansor, 1992; Mansor and Ali, 1998; Trompenaars and Turner, 1993; Shepard, 1992; Sendut, 1991 and Nien, 1992), values common to all Malaysians regardless of their race can be summarised. These values however, by no means represent an exhaustive list. Some common values of all Malaysians are:

- *Collectivism*

People in the Western and developed countries tend to be more individualistic, while East Asian culture is prone to be more collective (Tayeb, 1996). Malaysians are generally group-oriented and a person's identity is often associated with the group he belongs to. The spirit of collectivism is more important than individualism, and this is often translated into the willingness to give priority to group interests ahead of individual concerns. In the workplace, satisfaction is derived from having

opportunities to receive respect from fellow colleagues and maintaining harmonious, predictable and establishing good relationship with subordinates and peers (Abdullah, 1992a). These underlying cultural values make Malaysians work extremely well in a team environment.

- *Respect for Elders, Loyalty and Hierarchies*

These three values are closely inter-related. In all circumstances, Malaysians are expected to respect their elders in their speech and behaviour. Leaders are often considered as 'wise elders' and their authority is often unquestioned and unchallenged. Therefore, it is not surprising that to a certain extent an authoritarian style of management is still predominant and usually tolerated. It is a moral obligation on the managers to care for their employees and the employees would reciprocate in terms of loyalty and commitment. Malaysians live in a complicated web of kinship ties based on the concept of mutual and traditional obligations. They have a well-knitted relationship especially with family, village, state or social group. Hence, loyalty is highly valued in Malaysian society where employers expect their employees to be dedicated to their work and loyal to the organisation (Abdullah, 1992b).

Malaysians are generally conscious of their social hierarchy in the society. The use of honorific to address certain individuals to indicate social status, level of authority and wealth is a common practice. Knowing the correct form of salutation indicates that a person has good manners and is a polite act. Doing it right, may enhance one's social standing and personal contacts whilst doing it wrong may cause the other person to be slighted and relationships may be affected (Abdullah, 1992a).

- *Religion*

The majority of Malaysians associate themselves with a particular religion. Muslims are the majority population followed by Christians, Buddhism and Hinduism. Contentment is obtained through religious and spiritual pursuits, and it is difficult for Malaysians to achieve self-actualisation without taking into consideration the needs of others, especially their loved ones (Abdullah, 1992a). Many organisations would implement managerial practices based on Islamic principles and such practice is also common in MIRB. In MIRB, the practice of 'morning prayers' and other religious activities have become a routine that is observed regularly.

- *Harmony*

Malaysians pay greater attention to the community feeling, such as 'we' in the Indian culture, '*gotong-royong*' (co-operation spirit) in the Malay culture and the ideal family unit of Confucian values adopted by the Chinese, are the principles that harmonise the Malaysian society. All these races emphasised on harmonious relationship in every aspect of their life (Mansor and Ali, 1998; Hallinger, 1998). Often, they feel secure if others in the organisation especially their superiors are aware of them, understand their situation, treat them fairly and assess them accurately. Malaysians are open to an extent but often negative opinions are avoided so as not to undermine harmonious relationships which will further lead to withdrawal of employees, poor performance and disloyalty towards the organisation (Abdullah, 1992a).

- *Face*

Preserving face means maintaining a person's dignity by not embarrassing or humiliating him/her in public or in front of others (Abdullah, 1992a). Preserving face has a lot of significance at the workplace where to some extent it has resulted in Malaysians being less forward in expressing views and opinions. They are generally uncomfortable when critically evaluating peers and subordinates. Therefore, giving negative feedback can be awkward and difficult because it is more of the norm to be indirect than direct. Criticism can be taken seriously as it may lead to embarrassment and 'loss of face'. Mansor and Mohd Ali (1998) have highlighted that the concept of 'giving face', which is so much based on the interpersonal relationship, stands in contradiction with the bureaucratic system where efficiency is to be achieved at any cost.

In the context of government organisations, the term organisational culture would mean the value systems, norms, attitudes and principles shared by employees. In Malaysia, traits such as neutrality, accountability and excellence of work performance is incorporated in the organisational culture, which would contribute to their success (Hamid, 1992, 1994). Beginning with a bureaucratic model based on Western management principles, the Look East Policy (Japanese Management principles), and the reintroduction of the Islamic managerial practices on Malaysian organisations have created considerable tensions for organisations. Mansor and Mohd Ali (1998) consider this 'pick and mix' method as a form of organisational flexibility. However, in one way this method can be used as a potential for creating a learning organisation but in other ways it can produce tensions where certain western ideals or Islamic principles clash with traditional Malaysian values. This issue will be discussed in the conclusion of the thesis.

2.4 Background of the Malaysia Tax System

Although, the British presence in Malaya was as early as the 18th century, the British only introduced income tax in its modern form into the Federation of Malaya (now known as Malaysia) with effect from 1 January 1948. Initially, the Income Tax Ordinance 1947 was legislated based on the Heasman Report of 1947. Being a British colony, therefore, the provisions of the Ordinance were based largely on the Model Colonial Territories Income Tax Ordinance, 1922. This is not unusual, as Malaysia like many Commonwealth countries adopted their tax laws based on the British model.

Malaya achieved its independence from the British in 1957 and since then various changes in its civil service have occurred to suit local needs. The Income Tax Ordinance, 1947 was subsequently repealed and replaced by the Income Tax Act, 1967 which came into effect on 1 January 1968. The Income Tax Act 1967, actually consolidated the three laws of income taxation; the Income Tax Ordinance, 1947 which was only applicable to Peninsular Malaysia, the Sabah Income Tax Ordinance, 1956 which was only applicable to Sabah and the Sarawak Inland Revenue Ordinance, 1960 which was applicable to Sarawak only (Kasipillai and Shanmugam, 1996).

Since the formation of Malaysia in 1963, the three separate taxation laws in these three territories continued to be in existence until the introduction of the Income Tax Act, 1967. Later, this legislation and all its subsidiary legislation were formally repealed and the Income Tax Act, 1967 became effective as from 1 January 1968, but

certain provisions of the three Ordinances were temporarily continued (as transitional provisions) in all the three territories.

The Income Tax Act 1967 introduced some significant changes, which included the following:

- a. Residents were taxed on a world income basis⁵ (but with effect from year of assessment 1974, with the exception of income derived from banking, insurance, and air or sea transport operations, this basis was abolished and replaced by the derived and remittance basis);
- b. Commencement and cessation provision were abolished and the preceding year basis of taxation became applicable;
- c. Business losses suffered in any year are deductible against income from all income from all sources for that year and carry forward losses may only be set-off against income from business sources in subsequent years;
- d. Appointment of a Special Commissioner for the hearing of appeals;
- e. Increased penalties for tax evasion; and
- f. Wider powers to counter tax avoidance (Singh, 1994).

In addition to the parent act (Income Tax Act, 1967), various other subsidiary legislation was introduced to empower the imposition of additional taxes. An additional tax known as excess profit tax was introduced in 1975 on income in excess of a specific threshold. This tax has now been abolished. The Supplementary Income Tax Act, 1967 was introduced to impose an additional tax and under this

⁵ The scope of charge to income tax refers to the limits or the parameters within which income would be taxed in a country. The concept of world income basis taxed all income regardless from wherever it arises. It is based on the citizenship, residence or domicile of a taxpayer. The scope is very wide so it is also difficult for the tax authority to verify that the taxpayer has reported their world-wide income.

Act, the development tax was introduced with effect from year of assessment 1968. There were other supplementary taxes such as the tin profit tax, which was first introduced in 1965, and timber profits tax was introduced in 1969. The tax system was further reformed in 1967 by the introduction of the Petroleum (Income Tax) Act 1967.

In order to create a more favourable tax climate for both foreign and local investment, various tax incentives were introduced under the Investment Incentives Act, 1968. Under this Act, a wide range of incentives including tax holidays for pioneer companies, investment tax credits and export allowances are provided. Subsequently, the Investment Incentive Act, 1968 was repealed and the incentives structure was revamped through the introduction of the Promotion of Investments Act 1986 (Singh, 1994).

The land speculation Tax Act, 1974 was introduced to curb unhealthy speculation in the Malaysian property market. This legislation was repealed in 1975 and a new law entitled the Real Property Gains Tax Act, 1976 was enforced with effect from 7 November 1975. Under this Act, tax is imposed on all gains, other than those exempted, derived from the sale of real properties situated in Malaysia. To address the problem of tax avoidance by property owning, the Share (Land Based Company) Transfer Tax Act 1984 was introduced to prevent revenue loss from such arrangements. The Act was repealed with effect from 21st October 1988 because a significant number of anomalies arise in the application of this Act. A number of anti-avoidance provisions dealing with the sale of shares in a property owning company have been introduced into the legislation on real property gain tax to ensure that gains derived from such sales are properly chargeable to tax (Kasipillai and Shanmugam, 1996).

Beside income tax, stamp duty and estate duty was governed by separate sets of legislation applicable to Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah and Sarawak. The stamp duty legislation was consolidated in 1990 and the legislation is now known as the Stamp Act, 1949. The estate duty legislation was abolished with effect from 1st November 1991.

With a long list of legislation under the governance of the Inland Revenue, one could imagine how complicated and meticulous the process of tax collections and enforcement is. In 52 years of history, the Income Tax Act and its subsidiary legislation have been subjected to various amendments and still continue to be reviewed to serve the government's objectives and to match the changing economic and political environment both locally and globally. It is therefore vital for every tax officer that the interpretation and intention of the tax law is clearly understood to enable them to apply the various tax codes in their daily work.

2.4.1 Contribution of Fiscal Policy to the Malaysian Economy

From the above discussion, we could see how the government has used taxation as one of its fiscal tools in regulating the nation's economic growth and performance. The Malaysian direct tax consists of income tax, which comprises of individual income tax, company tax and petroleum tax. Other direct taxes include, real property gain tax, share transfer tax, estate duty and stamp duty. In recent years the importance of direct tax has been increasing substantially. During the years between 1970 to 1981, income tax revenue increased almost nine-fold, while the Gross National Product (GNP) increased by about five times. In the 1990's, the income tax revenue increased almost at par with the increase in GNP. Income tax

now constitutes 50 percent of Malaysian GNP, from which companies (involved in non-petroleum activities) contribute the largest portion of income tax (an average of 48 % over the period) whereas individuals contribute an average of 25 % of income tax revenue. Petroleum income tax is a significant element, forming an average of 27 % of income tax revenue. Petroleum became a major source of income tax revenue from 1977 and fluctuation in its share of income tax revenue is expected due to decline in oil prices, escalating costs and the recent lowering of the tax rate (Malaysia Economic Report, 1991).

In the Newly Industrialised Countries (NIC) like Malaysia, tax policy play a positive role in stimulating economic growth. To attract foreign investment and to stimulate economic growth, Malaysia's tax policy model includes the widespread application of tax relief on selective investments. The model encompasses a system of graduated personal and corporate taxes and complex schemes of indirect taxes (Singh, 1994). There are two ways in which the tax policies contribute to the overall economic development of Malaysia:

- It ensures stable revenue to finance government expenditure.
- It provides incentive to promote growth especially in the private sector and the nation economy as a whole.

In view of the significance of taxes to the economy, the tax factor has become a significant input in devising corporate strategies and in implementing investment decisions. As such, decision makers in the private sector must have adequate and up to date knowledge on the impact of tax law and practice governing commercial transactions whether domestic or international in character. The generation of rapid knowledge in taxation in the private sector has to be matched competitively by MIRB. It is therefore important, to look at the micro aspects of MIRB and how it's

role can be enhanced not only to maximise revenue collection but also in relation to the global environment.

2.5 The Malaysia Inland Revenue Board (MIRB)

MIRB is a government agency under the Ministry of Finance. It is the administrative machinery by which income tax is levied and collected. The tax administration encompasses: the determination of tax liability; the collection of the tax; the settlement of tax disputes and the imposition of penalties for violation of tax laws. Understanding the micro aspects of tax administration is necessary in understanding how the organisation fits into the wider perspective. In the earlier discussion, we could see that a well-defined legal framework governs the performance of MIRB's employees. Learning is vital for MIRB employees because of the rapid changes in tax laws, evolving internal environment and the dynamic external (global) environment, which has had a considerable impact on the operation of the organisation. The increasing role of information technology also impacts on MIRB's work and is likely to be a significant learning tool for its employees. MIRB is organised into various departments based on its activities and functions. It is a large organisation, which currently employs 6,151 employees (MIRB annual report 1996).

Table 2.1: Staffing of the MIRB for the year ended 31/12/1996

CATEGORY	NUMBER OF STAFF
TECHNICAL GROUP:	
Executive Management	5
Technical Posts	3329
NON-TECHNICAL GROUP:	
Legal	11
Information Technology	622
Administration	2184
TOTAL	6151

Source: IRB Annual Report 1996

Having existed as a full civil service organisation for 48 years, the Inland Revenue Department was transformed into a statutory body with effect from 1st March 1996. The granting of the new status gives the revenue administration in Malaysia the administrative and financial autonomy to manage itself in the collection of tax for the Federal Government. Changes in the new administration include the power to recruit its own staff, establish its own accounting system and to engage in contracts with other legitimate organisations.

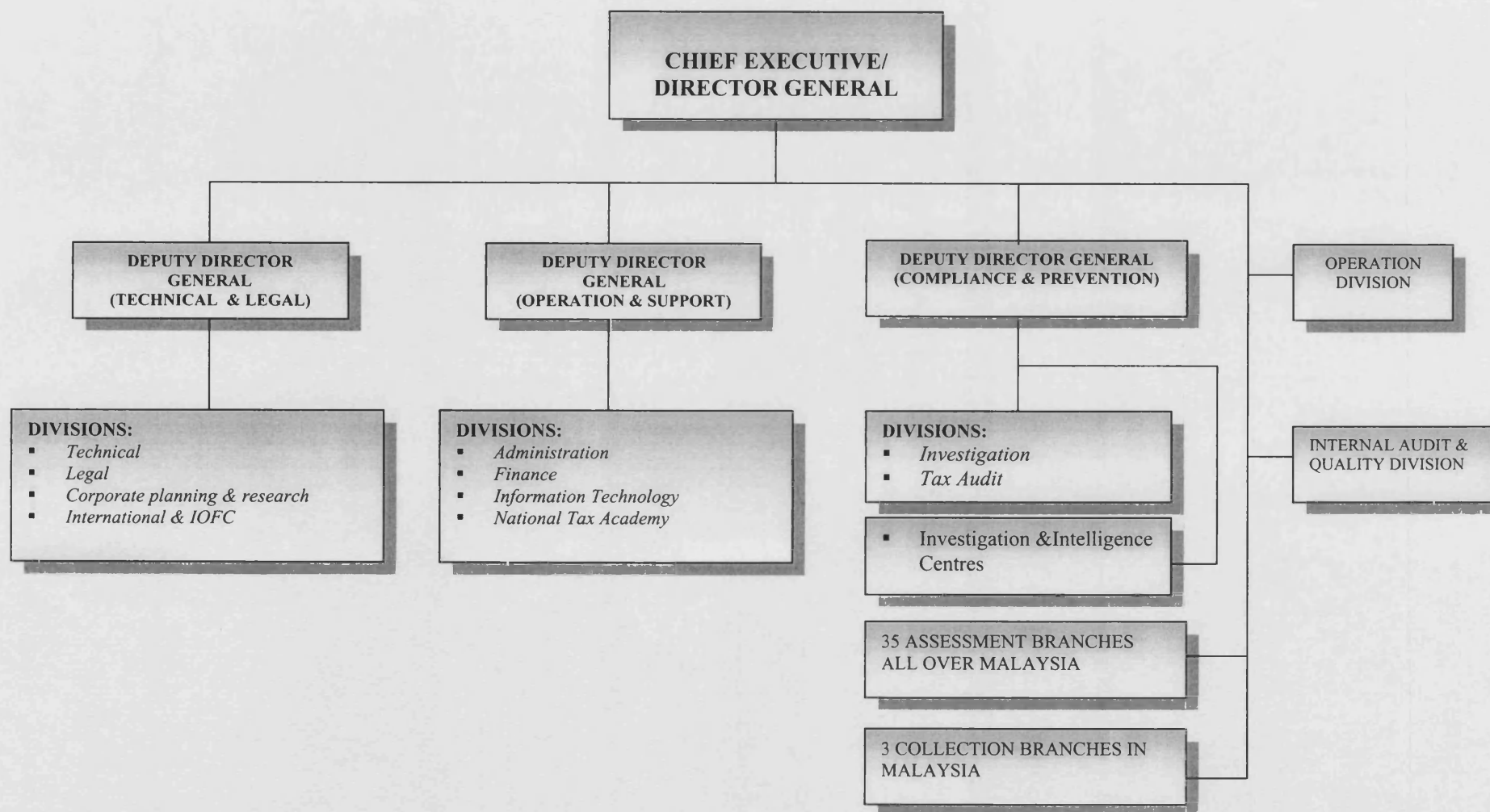
The organisation was restructured in terms of its operational function, with the hope of bringing more flexibility to its operation. This flexibility should enable MIRB to solve its problems faster because it does not have to refer its administrative matters to the Public Civil Service nor the Public Service Commissioner like any other government departments. Prior to the transformation of the organisation into a statutory body, the organisation was headed by a senior civil servant appointed by the Federal Government and directly answerable to the Ministry of Finance. Under the new set up, MIRB is managed by a board of directors consisting of a Chairman (The Secretary General of Treasury) and 5 independent board members and the

Chief Executive Officer (CEO) cum Director General (DG). The daily operational function of MIRB is under the responsibility of the CEO/DG who leads and plans the direction of the organisation.

The powers of the Board shall include powers:

- (a) To enter into contracts;
- (b) To utilise all property of the Board, movable and immovable, in such manner as the Board may think expedient including the raising of loans by mortgaging such property;
- (c) To engage in any activity, either alone or in conjunction with other organisations or international agencies, to promote better understanding of taxation;
- (d) To provide technical advice or assistance, including training facilities, to tax authorities of other countries;
- (e) To impose fees or charges for services rendered by the Board;
- (f) To grant loans to employees of the Board for any purpose specifically approved by the Board;
- (g) To provide recreational facilities and promote recreational activities for, and activities conducive to the welfare of employees of the Board;
- (h) To provide training for employees of the Board and to award scholarships or otherwise pay for such training; and
- (i) To do anything incidental to any of its powers (Inland Revenue Board of Malaysia Act, 1995).

FIGURE 2.1: MIRB ORGANISATION CHART



Source: <http://www.hasilnet.org.my/Hasilnet/hasil.html>

2.5.1 The Organisational Set up of MIRB

The MIRB management system is based on strategic activities that make up the organisation's core functions and operations (see figure 2.1). Under the new set up the designations of various posts were changed. Various attempts were made to restructure the organisation by tearing down the many levels of hierarchies and simplifying the categories of employees' schemes. This will be discussed further in the next section.

The main activity of MIRB, which is the assessment of tax, is decentralised while the collection of tax is centralised. There are 15 divisions (see figure 2.1) in the whole set up of the organisation:

- International and International Offshore Financial Centre
- Tax Operation
- Information Technology
- Quality Division
- Technical Division
- Legal Division
- Tax Audit
- Corporate Planning and Research
- Investigation and Intelligence
- Administration and Finance Division
- National Tax Academy
- Collection Branch
- Branch Offices
- Estate Duty Office

- Stamp Duty Offices

Each of these units or departments serves the various functions in the organisation by providing service to its internal or external customers. It is important to understand the philosophy of the organisation in general and the specific characteristics of a tax administration organisation in particular. MIRB is a tax-collecting agent for the government and as such it provides very little direct benefit to the public, and many people would choose to avoid tax and the organisation itself if given a choice! The main service provided by any tax department is to facilitate taxpayers in complying with the tax laws. Therefore, MIRB's position as revenue collecting agent and as a provider of service to the public influences the organisation's orientation and philosophy. As a government agency, MIRB obviously has a different vision and mission as compared to any other private organisation or its stakeholders. MIRB is operating under non-market conditions and, to a certain extent, enjoys the prerogative of being the legal tax collector. This unique position requires a delicate balance between power and voluntary co-operation and at the same time trying to uphold a belief in fairness and equity in tax collection.

In many ways, the 'corporatisation' of MIRB was very much trying to mimic the set up of a private organisation. It is obviously not possible to run MIRB like a private organisation, where the costs and benefits are related. In any government agency where public goods and services are produced, the public can weigh the benefit against the cost. However, the benefit one gains out of paying tax is not direct, as such, the cost and benefit of paying taxes in the eyes of the public is not clear.

Nevertheless, given all the constraints, it is extremely important that MIRB should provide quality service to taxpayers to help them fulfil their tax obligation to make it easy and 'painless' for taxpayers. Being an unpopular organisation, the organisation is concerned to project a positive image of itself in all its interactions with the public. The human resources of MIRB thus become the important resource, which needs to be managed in the most efficient manner. Schlemenson (1992) stresses that management of human resources "is a fundamental pillar of tax administration" because of the complexity of the task associated with various posts and hierarchical levels. Each post requires a certain level of ability, knowledge, skill and experience.

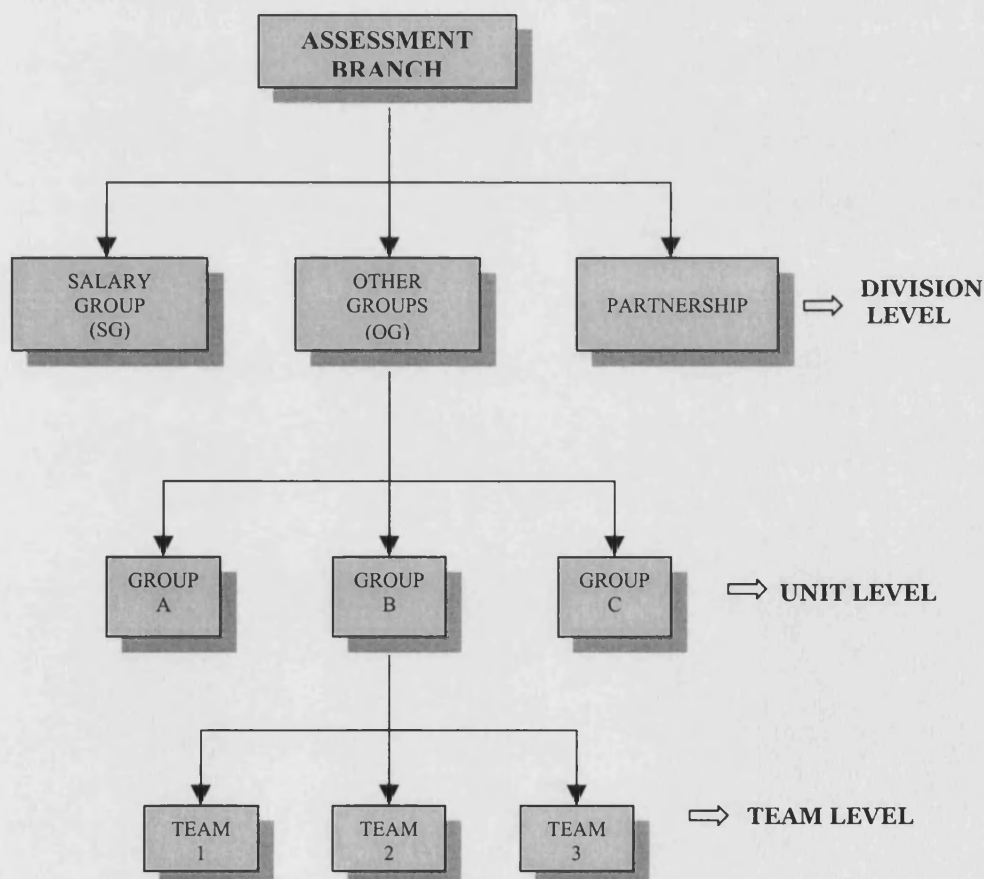
Yet, it is well known that research on the managerial aspects of tax administration is neglected even in developed countries. Most research tends to focus on the policy and technical aspects of taxation. To my knowledge, no studies have been done in Malaysia or throughout the developed world on tax officials, of why and how they do what they do. Tax administration encompasses both mass (routine) and individual (discretionary) tasks. The routine functions include transactions such as withholding, the maintenance of taxpayer's accounts, and collection while the latter includes functions such as audit and investigation (Bird and Jantscher, 1992).

New developments, such as the move taken by the government to adopt a self-assessment system will definitely have consequences on MIRB's capability. The changes from traditional assessment into self-assessment require the process of learning and unlearning within the organisation. Human resources in MIRB are therefore a crucial catalyst of learning for the organisation and therefore require careful attention.

2.5.2 Work Organisation and Teams in MIRB

The teams in MIRB can be roughly categorised into three groups, the permanent teams, the semi-permanent teams and the *ad-hoc* teams. The permanent teams are the small units established within each branch/division to run the daily routines of the branch. Each branch (see figure 2.2), for example the assessment branch⁶ is composed of several small divisions such as the Salary Groups (SG), Other Groups (OG), Partnership Unit and others, which is further divided into smaller units.

Figure 2.2: An Example of Work Organisation in a Branch Office of MIRB



⁶ Assessment branch is the division that is involved in the core business of the organisation, which is assessment of tax. About 60% of MIRB human resources are utilised in this core activity.

Taxpayer's files are equally divided among these units to give them a fair share of the workload. In each unit, depending on the size of the branch, there will be a group of 10-15 tax officers. Tax officers play a dual role of attending to taxpayers' files or cases and also being involved with the audit team (a group of 3-4 people). Although, these teams are permanent structures in the units, the members of the audit team are flexible and may change from time to time. An officer who is in charge of the respective files (cases) usually leads the audit team. These audit teams are 'horizontal' teams consisting of members of the same rank, but have different levels of experience depending on their years of service and the divisions within which they have been working in the organisation.

Another example of permanent teams, are the investigation teams in the Investigation Centres. The people in Investigation Centres usually work as a much bigger team, perhaps 10-30 people depending on the size of the case being investigated. Investigation teams require greater flexibility when working on the ground in the sense that the big team will split into smaller team of 2 to 4 officers and at some point will be required to consolidate themselves during the investigation activities. In audit and investigation activities, the officer in charge of the case, regardless of his/her rank has more power to decide and plan strategy, although he/she at any point is free to consult his/her superiors, peers and seniors for advice. The power of these teams is derived from the legal provisions of the Act, the department regulations and circulars. The more experienced the tax officer who leads the audit or investigation team, the more skilful he/she is at negotiating and detecting the flaws and discrepancies in the taxpayer accounts.

The semi-permanent teams are set up in the organisation to solve organisational problems. The team can exist for years or as long as the problem exists. Examples

of such teams are the Drafting Committee, which was set up at the headquarters level and the Quality Circles, which were set up at the divisional level. For example, the Drafting Committee was set up to study the implications of the new tax laws passed by the parliament and also to propose any changes in the law if any discrepancies are detected. Members of the team come from the senior ranking officers from related divisions depending on the expertise they have to offer. It is usually headed by a more senior officer who co-ordinates the team activities.

The *ad-hoc* teams are set up both at the unit, branch, division and headquarters level to address short term issues or problems which appears occasionally. The problem or issues addressed by these ad-hoc teams are usually not policy related but rather operational in nature. An example of such a team is the Taxpayer Week Committee, and because the nature of the issues involved are operational, the members largely come from the lower ranking officers (ordinary officers) from various units. The Taxpayer Week Committee will be set up once a year to assist the public in completing their tax return and other related services. Temporary counters and booths will be set up in various shopping and commercial buildings all over the country to assist the public. Teamwork is a significant part of learning in MIRB and this will be further investigated in the empirical work of this research. It can be seen later how these teams can promote or impede learning in the organisation.

2.6 Managing the Human Resources in MIRB

From an organisation that concentrates on traditional administration, MIRB has moved into an era of treating employees as assets of the organisation. Although the practice is still far from the ideal of a strategic and coherent approach of managing humans as their most valued asset of the organisation, the 'corporatisation' of MIRB

has shown a positive move in this direction. In this section we will look at the current position of the three important elements of HRM in MIRB, which are;

- Career development
- The remuneration and promotion package
- The training and development of staff

The work force of MIRB comprises 16 grades and they can be crudely categorised into two main groups: technical and the non-technical. The non-technical group consists of the legal professionals, computer experts, clerical and other supporting staff. While the non-technical group plays a significant role in supporting the organisation, the competitive edge of MIRB lies in the technical group. The large bulk of the MIRB workforce is the technical group, which is the backbone of the organisation, and they make up roughly 60 per cent of the total work force. This research therefore concentrates on the technical group of employees in MIRB.

2.6.1 Career Development, Remuneration and Promotion Packages

In 1992, the restructuring of the organisation resulted in the ‘weeding’ out of certain posts and the merging of three major grades. Two grades, A22 and A12 were merged into the ordinary scale grade A20. The A12 is a promotional post that is higher than the A22 and A20. This restructuring was done in an attempt to tear down the levels and flatten the organisation structure.

The restructuring marked a historic event in the development of the career structure of MIRB’s staff. The process of ‘weeding’ and merging of the posts created serious problems with escalating dissatisfaction among employees as some people lost their seniority in the process of transformation to another grade. Although, there was no

financial implication, it demoralised the officers involved because an officer who is of grade A12 is usually the boss of tax officers in grade A22 and A20 but is now on par with his/her subordinates.

To a certain extent, the traditional hierarchical structure of MIRB collapsed as a result of the restructuring. However, the impact was only at the lowest level of the management hierarchy, thus the middle and top management of MIRB still maintained their hierarchies. This raised the problem of the ordinary tax officers (A20) who joined the organisation before the date of restructuring becoming senior on years of service to people whose posts were abolished (A22 and A12). As a result of this major exercise, people who were deputy group leaders, group leaders and floor managers became of equal rank with the people they were supervising. In MIRB, group leaders and floor managers represent the lower level of management in the organisation. Consequently, there were many grievances, which were channelled to the appropriate authorities but the matter remains unresolved.

Whilst most of the issues related to restructuring were not resolved, the government announced the corporatisation of the organisation in 1996. This involved a further major restructuring of the career structure in MIRB. This time the predicament involved people under the age of 40, who had served MIRB for more than 10 to 15 years, losing their pension rights as a result of corporatisation. Although compensation was paid, the bulk of the payments for those under the age of 40 went to the Employee Provident Fund. In contrast, people aged 40 and above continue to enjoy substantial monetary benefits and their pensionable status.

As a result of the corporatisation, the remuneration package of MIRB's employees was differentiated from other government departments and the conversion led to an

increase of roughly 20 per cent more than the government salary scheme. The majority of employees accepted the conversion to the corporate scheme while some declined and a few left the organisation for early retirement or resigned to join private organisations.

Promotion in MIRB is still based on seniority to a certain extent, although claims are made that it is based on merit. The basic criteria, however, remains the length of service. Today MIRB is still facing career structure problems. The new management promised that promotion would be on merit rather than seniority. However, due to the distinct pyramidal nature of the organisation with a very broad base, not many people get the opportunity to move up the ladder. When it comes to career development, officers believe that they will not have the chance to move upwards. Most people find that they will remain in their present grade throughout their careers in MIRB.

2.6.2 Learning in the Organisation

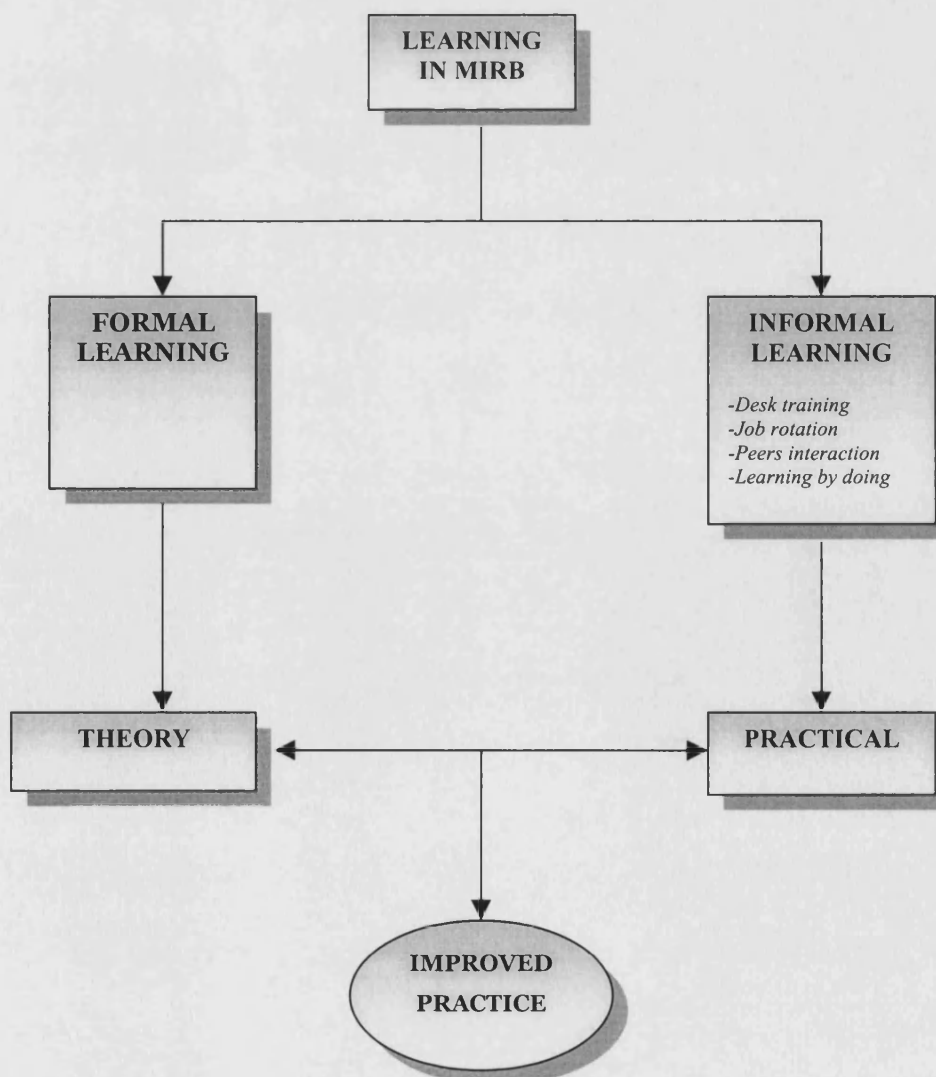
The human resource development policy of the organisation is to develop a highly trained, knowledgeable and skilled workforce through the formal and informal training of staff. MIRB has invested heavily in providing in-house and external training, as well as higher education to its staff in local and foreign universities. In the 1980s, a large number of qualified staff were sent for higher education to pursue their second degree in order to develop a highly educated workforce.

As a first approximation, we can say that there are two types of learning that can be identified in MIRB:

- (a) Formal learning
- (b) Informal learning

In the diagram below (figure 2.3) we can see that the two types of learning opportunities will produce two types of knowledge, which is the theoretical knowledge which is the outcome of formal learning and practical knowledge which is the result of informal learning. It should be emphasised that there are learning opportunities, however, it does not follow that all is taught will be learnt. First we will deal with the formal learning.

Figure 2.3: Types of Learning Opportunities in MIRB



(a) *Formal Learning*

The training activities in MIRB have been going on since the introduction of the Income Tax Ordinance, 1947. From the period 1947-1967, British tax administrators conducted courses on an *ad-hoc* basis. The first training officer, Mr. Heasman had 5 participants in his first class. It was only in 1970 that the head of the training division was taken over by a Malaysian, Mr. S. Sivalingam (National Tax Academy Annual Report, 1995-1996). Prior to the setting up of the National Tax Academy (NTA) in 1994, there were at least 5 regional training centres in Malaysia, monitored by the main training division in Kuala Lumpur.

Today NTA takes full responsibility for training all MIRB's staff. Formal training is given high priority in the organisation's agenda. These types of learning consist of structured courses in law and accounting with a curriculum tailored to ensure that the staffs are able to perform their functions. The formal learning would include the learning of rules, regulations, computation of tax, case laws and all other legislation administered by the organisation.

The in-house training programmes offered by the NTA can be classified into 5 categories:

- In-service training
- Skill/Competency training
- Specialisation and self development
- Tax education
- International courses

- *In-Service Training*

In-service training is conducted for all employees who are newly appointed to provide them with the basic skills to perform their job. The in-service training is the basic course, which contains two modules of accounting and law papers for all tax officers of various categories of service. Training is done on the job, where officers will be in the training academy for a week session each month to complete the course modules. Table 2.1, shows the in-service training programmes offered by NTA.

Table 2.2: In-Service Courses Offered by NTA

COURSES	PARTICIPANTS
Preliminary Training	Assessment Officers
Advance Training	Assessment Officers
Basic Training	Assistant Assessment Officer
Skill Training	Assistant Assessment Officer
Basic Training	Tax Assistant
Skill Training	Tax Assistant
General Module Induction Course	Executive & Support Group
General Module Induction Course	Executive
General Module Induction Course	Assistant Assessment Officer & Support Group
Specialised Module Induction Course	Assistant Assessment Officer & Support Group
Specialised Module Induction Course	Executive & Assistant Executive

Source: IRB Annual Report 1997 and National Tax Academy, 1997

Examinations are set at the end of courses to evaluate participant performance. Passing the basic training course, commonly known, as the preliminary course is a pre-requisite for confirmation of the job. The consequences of failing the examination lead to the termination of the officer's service. After the candidates have passed their preliminary examination, they will be called to attend the advanced course. The skill or competency training of higher level courses is aimed

at equipping all tax officers with more sophisticated knowledge in understanding tax laws and accounting practices. Examinations are given at the end of the advanced course, but there is no obligation that officers should pass the examination. Nevertheless, people are encouraged to pass the examination and the social pressure in the organisation to do so is considerable.

There are no monetary incentives upon passing this examination. Only recently, it was made one of the criteria in applying for scholarships for higher education. However, it is rather a limited way of rewarding staff because of the few scholarships available each year and it is unlikely that all who passed this examination would want to pursue a higher degree. Therefore the majority who pass the examinations will not be rewarded in any way.

- *Specialisation and Development Training*

The specialisation and development training (table 2.3) involves programmes tailored according to the needs of the organisation and requirements of tax officers. These courses include training in computer skills, language proficiency, fraud investigation and intelligence skills and other courses which contribute to the personal and career development of the employees. These courses are attended by all categories of staff in MIRB, depending on their appropriateness to the staff's work. It is often conducted by the NTA but sometimes may be conducted by other institutions outside the organisation.

Table 2.3: Specialisation Courses Offered by NTA

Auditing	Investigation Accounting
Investment Incentive & Export	Public Relation & Etiquette
Accounting for Assistant Assessment Officer	Improvement and Assessment Quality
Computerised Accounting	Computer Training
Investigation & Intelligence	Specialised-Industries (Golf/Shares/Insurance)
Pay As You Earn (PAYE) Facilitator Training	Quality Supervision & Management
Communication Skill for Supervisors	English Language & other languages
Self and Organisation Excellence	Motivation & Counselling
Presentation Skill	Tax Service Via Phone for Facilitators
Fitness Course	Civil Law
ISO 9000 Awareness	

Source: IRB Annual Report 1997 and National Tax Academy 1997

The National Tax Academy also participates in conducting international courses, seminars and workshops. International courses for tax administrators of the developing countries are organised by IRB in co-operation with other tax organisations in the world, mainly in the Commonwealth.

Table 2.4: International Tax Programmes

Courses	Category of participants
GTAC	Foreign & Malaysian Tax Administrators
Seminar on Transfer Pricing and Workshop on Taxation of International Transaction 97	Foreign & Malaysian Tax Administrators
Taxation	Tax Administrators from Bhutan

Source: IRB Annual Report 1997

The tax education programmes are conducted for the public, government agencies and private organisations to promote a general understanding of the tax law and system of the country (Annual Report, 1995).

(b) *Informal Learning*

However, the main focus in this research is on informal learning, which is a crucial aspect of learning in MIRB. The daily work of an IRB officer involves many judgements in the course of decision making. Judgement in grey areas, such as between evasion and avoidance requires tacit skill, which cannot be taught and learned in classroom settings. This takes us beyond training. Bridging the gap between formal learning and informal learning (Bailie, O'Hagan, McAleavy, 1998) remains a challenge for all organisations in response to the rapidly changing environment. The notion of learning from experience in MIRB is indeed nothing new but to what extent this type of learning has significantly contributed to the development of learning among its staff remains an open question.

Informal learning provides continuous learning for all its employees. There are at least five ways of achieving informal learning that can be identified in MIRB:

- Desk training
- Mentoring (Checker System)
- Job rotation
- Peer interaction
- Learning by doing

- *Desk Training*

Desk training in MIRB is part of the organisation's tradition which is used to develop and improve the newly appointed staff's practical skills and also for the existing serving officers who are transferred to another division. As the name implies, the informal training in MIRB is not a co-ordinated activity, in the sense that each

branch will design its own programme and cater for the types of training required according to the specific needs of the branch or division.

For a newly appointed tax officer, the informal training begins when a new officer is placed in a division of the organisation to learn the work of that division or unit as a form of exposure. After a brief training in the various divisions of the organisation, the officer is posted to his/her 'permanent' placement.

- *Mentoring (Checker System)*

At this juncture a checker (mentor) will be assigned to monitor his/her work and coach the junior officer placed under his/her supervision. The interaction between the new officer and his checker is very intensive and he/she would be taught things that will not be covered in the formal lectures in the academy. The new officer would be taught how to handle interviews with clients, what are the valid questions to ask and how to detect any attempt by taxpayers to conceal income or any relevant information. The amount of learning absorbed by the trainees depends largely on who the trainers are and how much initiative mentor and mentee have in trying to maximise learning. Therefore the significance of the desk training is that, it gives a trainee the opportunity of learning by doing and it involves real life problem solving.

Informal learning is an important aspect of building a learning organisation. Learning through experience over the years of working is acknowledged by many. Bridging the gap between formal and informal learning is important because the linkage between training in a classroom should match with the reality of the office environment. Argyis (1991) argued that the problem of most professional

organisations is that the espoused theory frequently does not match with the theory in use, and therefore leaves a space between training and working life.

However, this informal training is arranged at the unit or divisional level and it varies from one division to another. There is no specific programme or plan by the organisation as to how the informal training should be conducted. Learning by doing seems to be the method by which a tax officer learns the tricks of the trade and skills. But, how this learning takes place and whether it is of the same quality throughout the organisation has not been investigated.

- *Job rotation*

Job rotation is a routine in MIRB to expose staff to the various divisions in the organisation. Job rotation is an annual happening in MIRB, where staffs are transferred across the divisions, geographical locations and units. Even within a branch, people are transferred to other groups to gain the experience of doing different types of work. Transfers after promotion are also common in MIRB and employees have to be flexible and willing to be transferred to any part of the organisation.

- *Peer interaction*

Peer interaction in MIRB promotes collective learning where people consult one another in their daily routines and interactions. Getting people to learn in a group is much more effective as people tend to learn better from their friends than by themselves. Each unit consists of people with various types of experience and

exposure in the organisation, it ranges from people who are very junior to some very senior officers in the service.

There are also instances where, people from other branches or units are contacted to enquire about how certain cases should be treated or interpreted. Usually the discussion is not on a specific taxpayer's file but the enquiry and discussion is on technical issues and aspects of taxation. Peer interaction can also happen during in-house lectures where officers get together to listen to colleagues or the senior officer's lecture and they may also present certain technical issues which they come across in their daily work.

- *Learning by doing*

The experience of doing the job itself is a type of learning that people experience in their working life. The uniqueness of each taxpayer's case and the process of handling it during his/her working years enhances an individual's knowledge.

2.6.3 The Consequences of Informal Learning

There are two crucial consequences that arise from the informal learning activities in MIRB, the development of tacit knowledge and the promotion of collective learning. Tacit knowledge can be shared across the organisation among people of the same profession (Brown and Duguid, 1991; Kogut and Zander, 1996). In fact, Brown and Duguid (1991) stressed that tacit knowledge is more tied to social communities and cannot be stored or spread readily in information technology because people do not actually experience it (p.11).

Tacit learning is an unconscious type of learning that happens in the daily routine of the tax officers. It is quite natural for all tax officers to consult their peers, seniors and immediate supervisors as a source of reference when they encounter problematic and difficult cases. Consulting is done by seeking a second opinion or to ask how similar cases have been treated in the past.

Tacit learning in MIRB could be identified through learning from seniors and peers. The tacit knowledge possessed by the senior officer will vary with their years of experience in the organisation. In MIRB, much of this type of learning takes place during daily work where very often officers will consult their peers and immediate superiors to seek help on cases which are complicated or unique. The longer an officer happens to serve the organisation the more likely he/she would have come across many unique cases whereas for the junior officers it may be their first case.

Collective learning will promote collective intelligence (Brown and Lauder, 2001).⁷ However, Jones and Hendry (1994) note that creating the right environment for learning is crucial and the cultural orientation in creating the learning environment is more important than procedural matters. Teamwork that is the basis of Malaysian working culture provides a positive ground in promoting collective learning. However, other cultural traits such as the hierarchical structure of the society which tends to permeate the workplace may impede learning. The real challenge is therefore, to be able to negotiate and manage these tensions in order to promote learning in the organisation.

⁷ We will return to a discussion of the concept of collective intelligence and the different types of learning in organisations in the following chapters.

2.7 Problems in MIRB

Tax matters are the crux of the nation's revenue source and failure to collect tax will result in insufficient funds to develop the country's economic, educational and social infrastructure. As Goodman (1998) ruefully notes:

Today, a complex tax regime is largely unavoidable in a modern, diverse and sophisticated economy operating on a global basis. But when it is used by governments as a device for responding to social changes and as a tool to implement political policy, expressed in statutory language largely unchanged from the early Victorian era that is often drafted on the hoof, it little wonder that the results are taxing statutes that are indeed taxing (Goodman, 1998: 20).

What is more pertinent, in running a tax organisation in the 21st century is the ability of not only achieving traditional vertical and horizontal equity⁸ among citizens, but to be able to gauge the revenue leakage through complicated transactions of electronic commerce and transfer pricing which are a result of globalisation. The impact of globalisation as mentioned by Tanzi (2000) is to create more flexible capital and labour markets and hence rapid movement of capital across the globe.

The fast growing external environment, new technology, intricate questions of tax avoidance and tax evasion issues a strong challenge to MIRB to keep up to date with knowledge. As taxpayers become increasingly sophisticated in the nature of transactions and have greater access to the expertise of tax consultants, accountants and tax lawyers, the job of MIRB gets tougher. More taxpayers are using third party expertise in trying to secure maximum benefits in ascertaining their tax liability.

⁸ This is the most desirable attribute of a taxation system. Horizontal equity asserts that those who are in similar position in terms of wealth and income should pay the same amount of tax. While vertical equity asserts that to people who have different wealth or income levels should be treated differently, where those with higher income levels should pay higher tax.

On the other hand, a tax officer has to be in the position to make his/her best judgement that the taxpayer is not crossing the thin line between avoidance and evasion. The tax officer's judgement is based on his/her knowledge in all aspects of taxation and the experiences in performing the task and the ability to exercise his/her discretion within the legal framework of the organisation.

Most of the work organisation in MIRB is co-ordinated into teamwork, which strongly emphasises group performance, but at the same time the individual's performance is closely monitored. Performance targets are set not only on individuals but also at the unit, division and branch levels. Monitoring is done through the weekly, monthly or quarterly report submitted by individuals and the respective units, division or branch to the higher level of hierarchy. Although, management stresses the importance of learning, with such rigid scrutinisation of work and strict performance targets, the staff is left with a crucial choice between meeting those targets and being able to learn and innovate in their job.

To further illustrate this problem, let us look at the common dilemma faced by these tax officers. Each year they are given a performance target, which is the number of cases or files that must be completed by the end of the year. Although, in the annual performance report there are other criteria of evaluation, it is a norm/practice that the accomplishment of this quantity target is the primary concern of the management. In any circumstances where an officer fails to achieve his/her target, he/she would have to explain the causes to his/her superiors. In Chapter 7, we will be able to see how the tax officers would have to make critical choices between learning and performing up to the specified standards.

Monitoring is done through a monthly statistical report filed by each officer to his superior. Given such quantitative measures, officers are left with two choices, to be brief in their assessment and complete the case or do a thorough assessment, which takes more time. It is only through careful analysis and evaluation of the taxpayer's case that the 'real learning' would take place. Balancing the choice of finishing one job quickly and taking time to learn is indeed a delicate decision.

If we look at the nature of MIRB, it is rather obvious that the organisation is operating within a constricted legal framework whose powers are clearly defined by the Income Tax Act. Almost all its actions are based on prescribed procedures as laid down by the law and administrative rules and regulations prescribed by the CEO. For example, in the case of reducing the assessment and repayment to taxpayers, approval from the senior officers is required at various levels depending on the amount of money involved. The endorsement of officers at different levels is a source of protection to the officer concerned and also acts as a 'check and balance' system in the organisation. The concept of 'check and balance' is one of the ways by which any government bureaucracy safeguards and maintains its accountability to citizens. However, these protective measures of the organisation may impede the speed and quality of outcomes because decision making goes through so many levels of hierarchy. The principle of transparency and accountability could be seen as a barrier to learning in the sense championed by the learning organisation concept, which proposes risk-taking in learning.

The complexity of the tax law impacts on the operation of the organisation, because differences of interpretation of the law between the organisation and their clients leaves the organisation open to the high risk of being challenged through legal avenues. Thus, the organisation develops defensive mechanisms through rigid

observation of rules and procedures. Learning from mistakes therefore leaves MIRB with a costly choice, in which it has to weigh the potential for mistakes against the benefits. Hence, MIRB is organised to err on the side of caution rather than learning from mistakes.

How the organisation manages and supports learning depends on how effectively it acquires and transfers knowledge within the organisation across all levels. The poor internal communication structure of MIRB (Zakaria, 1996) obstructs the dissemination and flow of knowledge in the organisation. Zakaria highlighted MIRB's deficiencies especially in training and communication. His findings showed that the organisation was facing "meta-problems" on the issues as to what are their problems that need to be addressed. The disparity of opinions between the employees and management on various issues is indeed a blockage to communication in the organisation. The organisation's communication structure is influenced by the bureaucratic nature of the organisation, which is hierarchical and has therefore, multiple levels of authority. Moreover, the need to maintain confidentiality also causes a degree of information rigidity. The senior management of the organisation is not easily accessible and communication is undertaken in accordance with protocol or level of commands. Bypassing one's superior is considered rude and unacceptable.

This situation creates information rigidity (Brown and Lauder, 2001) and asymmetry of information, where knowledge is not shared through out the organisation and tends to be concentrated in a particular person or division. The pool of collective intelligence is therefore not fully optimised. In addition, human behaviours such as opportunism (Williamson, 1975) will block the flow of knowledge because some people will hold knowledge for their own benefit in order to pursue

their own individual career path. This problem is related to the fact that, as previously suggested, learning in MIRB is not directly linked to the career structure of the employees. The job requires a massive amount of learning but it is not clear how MIRB rewards or appreciates the learning capabilities of its employees.

Dissatisfaction among employees with higher degrees (masters) is greater because they do not see any opportunity to put their academic or professional abilities to use in the foreseeable future. Although, the number of people leaving the organisation is not at a critical level, MIRB does experience poaching by the private sector. Lack of career development for the staff has been a debatable issue in the organisation and on the whole may impact on the motivation of employees.

In developing a highly trained, knowledgeable and skilled workforce, MIRB gives priority to formal training. However, training in the old paradigm prepares people for machine-like work in the hierarchy. It is also a short-term activity, which emphasises practical skills applicable to the job. The shift of paradigm today is on learning “which involves reflection by individuals and working groups upon their own experience as part of the organisation whole” (Marsick, 1987: 3). Learning has become a crucial issue for MIRB due to the rapid changes that have taken place in the organisation and in the changing external environment. Informal learning is not properly planned and is mostly co-ordinated on an *ad-hoc* basis. The exploration and usage of informal learning in MIRB has not been adequate and thus leads to a loss of potential for further development in the organisation. These problems are the grounds for investigation in this research.

2.8 Summary

Given the problems that exist in MIRB and the current issue of globalisation and its consequences, it is likely that learning has a significant role to play. This research therefore focuses on learning in MIRB and the conditions that are essential in developing a learning organisation and ultimately to predict where a focus on learning might take this organisation. The next chapter will review the relevant literature on bureaucracy, which will act as the point of departure for this research before venturing into the issue of learning organisations. This sets up the *prima facie* case for the thesis that it is desirable for MIRB to become a learning organisation.

There are a series of constraints on learning within MIRB at present. At the level of the individual, MIRB's staffs have to trade off between learning and performance targets. In addition, there is a culture of hierarchy and deference within the organisation, which makes it difficult to by-pass immediate superiors in the search for advice and understanding. These problems are overlaid by rules and regulations, which limit independent learning and decision making. This limitation is exacerbated by the fact that the rigidity of bureaucratic procedures can cause failure, which can be costly. Therefore, a cautious approach emphasising hierarchical decision making by referring more complex cases upward is emphasised to reduce mistakes. While all these features act as constraints to learning, reasons have been given in terms of economic globalisation and national realities as to why MIRB needs to react more quickly and in qualitatively better ways. The success of MIRB to become more like a learning organisation and more receptive to change will likely depend on its ability to manage the tensions mentioned above.

CHAPTER 3: BUREAUCRACY, KNOWLEDGE AND LEARNING

3.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter, we have introduced and discussed the role, functions and key problems of MIRB. Looking back at the historical development of MIRB, it clearly shows that MIRB is essentially a bureaucratic organisation, though not in its purest form as connoted by Weber. Moreover, the recent transformation of MIRB into a government agency may have provided a degree of flexibility in terms of issues of funding and recruitment but may not have changed the dominant elements of bureaucracy in the organisation in relation to knowledge and learning. This then raises the question to be addressed in the succeeding chapters of this thesis as to the limits and possibilities for the transformation of MIRB from a bureaucratic to a learning organisation.

In order to set up this question, we need first to examine the nature of bureaucracy so that we can compare its defining organisational principles with those of a learning organisation. In order to judge the degree to which MIRB remains a bureaucratic organisation and the possible room it has for developing into a learning organisation, without compromising its core mission, ideal types of bureaucratic and learning organisations are developed. The literature on bureaucracy is large, therefore, this chapter will concentrate on the key issues regarding bureaucracy relevant to this thesis, the capacity for bureaucracy to generate and process knowledge and learning.

It has been recognised for some time that while bureaucracies can be extremely efficient under certain conditions, such organisations have faced fundamental problems with respect to the generation and transmission of knowledge and innovation. For example, as early as 1957 Robert Merton was pointing out that bureaucracy could lead to a trained incapacity on the part of individuals in which:

Actions based upon training and skills, which have been successfully applied in the past, may result in inappropriate responses *under changed conditions* (Merton, 1957: 198).

Similarly Burns and Stalker (1961) in *The Management of Innovation*, contrasted two types of organisation, the mechanistic (e.g., bureaucratic organisation) and the organic¹. The two types can be contrasted in several ways but the main point is that they have a totally different approach to knowledge. In the mechanistic organisation knowledge is located exclusively at the top of the hierarchy, “where the final reconciliation of distinct tasks and assessment of relevance is made” (p. 120). In contrast, in the organic organisation:

...knowledge about the technical or commercial nature of the here and now may be located anywhere in the network; this location becoming an *ad hoc* centre of control, authority and communication (p. 121).

The idea that control is much looser in an organic or innovative organisation is the key distinction by which the limits to knowledge and learning in a bureaucracy have been typically defined. In order to understand why this distinction is so central we need to discuss the nature of bureaucracy.

¹ It is worth pointing out that the organic, is in many ways, the forerunner of the notion of the learning organisation.

3.2 The Nature of Bureaucracy

The fundamental ideal type model to be discussed in this chapter was derived from Weber (1864-1920). For Weber, there are two ways of understanding ideal types. The first is, in relation to actually existing organisations and the second is in terms of theoretically possible organisations, against which dimensions of actual organisations can be 'measured'. It is in the latter sense that the term is being used in this thesis. From his sociological perspective, bureaucracy is seen to be an inclusive concept, which views modern organisations as a whole and focuses on the most general features, although he also recognised differences between them.

He defined bureaucracy as a system of administration and not a type of government. He described the character of bureaucracy, as a form of organisation found in business as well as the state, religion, and many other areas (Albrow, 1970). He perceived this kind of organisation as being a loyal tool in the service of policies set at a higher level because employees 'agree' to work as faithful cogs in the bureaucracy. Weber's definition is widely accepted because it is clear, precise and generalisable. However, his claim that the closer an organisation approximated to his model, the more efficient it would become is controversial, especially when it comes to issues of expertise, knowledge and innovation. While there has been much discussion of his model², it remains the cornerstone for the understanding of this type of organisation.

² Bureaucracy is multifaceted and will be seen differently by the various relevant disciplines. See for example Beetham (1996) who has argued that analysing bureaucracy from different perspectives and the relationship between them will provide the basis for a more coherent account. There are four perspectives on bureaucracy from the context of different academic disciplines; comparative government, the sociology of organisation, public administration and political economy respectively. Three of these perspectives, political economy, public administration and management are discussed later in the chapter. The perspective taken in this chapter is largely sociological. However, important theories from economics are also considered in order to build a better understanding of the nature of learning organisations in the next chapter.

There are six fundamental features of a bureaucracy according to his view (Gerth and Mills, 1948):

- ***Division of labour***

The duties of each office are clearly specified and there is a high degree of specialisation within a rationalised division of labour

- ***Hierarchy of authority***

There is a hierarchical chain of command with each role in the hierarchy circumscribed by rules, clearly defined responsibilities and obligations.

- ***Office holders are employees***

An employee's organisational position is clearly separated from the rest of his/her life. They do not gain any personal rights to the office.

- ***Office holding is a career***

Employees have distinct ladders of career progression laid out before them. Advancement in their career is based on merit

- ***Competence governs hiring and promotion***

Selection to the organisation and promotion is based on ability and technical knowledge, not personal criteria

- ***Impersonality regulates organisational acts***

A body of specific and general rules dealing with such issues as subordinates, peers and clients.

Within the above framework, Weber described features such as: an elaborate hierarchical division of labour directed by explicit rules impersonally applied, staffed by full time, life time, professionals, who do not own the 'means of administration', or their jobs, and live off a salary, not from income derived directly from the

performance of their job. Another important feature that Weber claimed vital in bureaucracy is the impersonal application of general rules, both to a bureaucracy's clients and its own staff. It is expected in a bureaucracy that the same rules apply to everyone and the duties and rights of the staff within the organisation are defined by rules applied to them impersonally by their superiors. Authority in a bureaucracy is regarded as legitimate because everyone has to obey whoever is in the leader's position (Weber, 1952).

Before examining the role of knowledge and learning in bureaucracies in greater detail, it is worth noting the issues, which arise when bureaucracy is seen from the perspective of neo-classical economics and public administration. This is because in different ways these perspectives have some relevance to an understanding of MIRB and the issues it confronts.

3.2.1 The Issues Arising out of Neo-Classical Economic and Public Administration Perspectives on Bureaucracy

While Weberians are impressed by the efficiency of bureaucracy as compared to traditional administrative systems, political economists view bureaucracies as grossly inefficient as compared to firms in the open market. The political economist approaches the study of bureaucracy from the assumption that markets are the most efficient forms of co-ordination. From the neo-classical economic view, bureaucracy is located on one side of a fundamental dividing between two contrasting methods of co-ordination: markets and hierarchies (Williamson, 1975). The market co-ordinates a large number of people on a lateral basis through the price mechanism and without, in theory, infringing individual freedom or requiring inequalities of status. On the other hand, hierarchies co-ordinate action vertically, via a structure

of consciously exercised authority and compulsion, in which people's status is by definition unequal. Here, the types of hierarchies are further differentiated; those operating within a market environment (firms) and those which are not (bureaucracies).

A bureaucracy is thus viewed as an administrative hierarchy financed by grants rather than by the sale of its product/output in the market (Beetham, 1996). The problem for Neo-Classical economists such as Williamson is, why bureaucracies have arisen at all and his answer is that, they arise out of market imperfections³. The market is deemed to be imperfect because there may be an asymmetry in knowledge between consumers and producers leading to opportunism or exploitation by one of the parties leading to an undermining of the relationship between them. However, while the growth of hierarchies of the great corporations can be explained through this asymmetry in knowledge they in turn lead to greater exploitation of consumers. In explaining the rise of corporate bureaucratisation in Neo-Classical terms, and in identifying the fundamental problems of bureaucratic monopolies, Williamson (1975) generated issues germane to learning organisation, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

In contrast, the study of public administration offers an altogether different perspective. In this discipline, bureaucracy means public administration as opposed to administration in a private organisation. Here, the central emphasis is on the 'public' and the main concern is to administer policy in accordance with the values that determine it. Policy and administration are not rigidly separable but rather interconnected. It is the general requirement of public administration that organisations should operate in a strictly rule-governed and impersonal manner.

³ See Chapter 4 for a further discussion of Williamson.

There is a substantive value embodying the idea of upholding the rule of law and the equality of citizen's rights. At this point, Weber's model of bureaucracy, which emphasises the principle of legal rationality is appropriate to the public sphere of public administration (Beetham, 1996). This is because both bureaucracy and public administration recognises the equal treatment of citizens and a consistent application of the law. In addition, the question of public accountability becomes an important matter in public administration in contrast to private organisations where performance is regulated by market competition and profits making⁴.

Government administration is subject to various levels and kinds of scrutiny and is accountable as to how public funds are spent and whether the administration is being conducted within the legally defined powers, and the legally established rights of the citizens. Government bureaucracy also has its own pressure towards secretiveness and monopolisation of information which threatens the effectiveness of scrutiny procedures (Beetham, 1996).

There are several issues that arise out of the questions asked from these disciplinary perspectives, which are relevant. The first is that MIRB like any public bureaucracy has to be careful to treat all like cases equally. There has to be a consistent application of laws. Moreover, unlike a private company it cannot take the risks that the latter can since it is dealing with public funds. A private firm can go broke, MIRB cannot! Its operations must be seen to be transparent if it is to gain and retain legitimacy, therefore whatever the desire for secrecy, its' judgements can always be challenged in the courts if not at the political level. This means that an element of risk aversion, described in the previous chapter, must remain. In this

⁴ This raises the broader issue of the relationship between democracy and a bureaucratic public administration that John Stuart Mill (1848) wrote about. In particular, given the knowledge, efficiency and power that reside in a bureaucracy, how could democratic governments remain accountable?

sense, there are clear bureaucratic elements to MIRB, which would be difficult if not impossible to change. However, this does not mean that some progress towards a learning organisation cannot be made.

3.3 Knowledge and Learning in Bureaucracies

There are several reasons why knowledge, learning and innovation are considered to be difficult to develop in a bureaucracy. In order to analyse the problems bureaucracy poses in relation to the above, the issues were examined according to four dimensions: human nature, intelligence and motivation; power control and co-ordination; management-employee relationships; and learning and knowledge. Using a typology of this kind will serve two main purposes: to identify the relevant characteristics of an ideal-typical model of bureaucracy and learning organisations and to serve as an explanatory framework. This analytical framework will enable us to compare the similarities, or mainly the differences, between the two forms of organisation and help us understand why bureaucracy is limited in its ability to generate and process knowledge, learning and innovation. The choice of these four headings is based on the differences in the key assumptions between the two types of organisations. These assumptions have been identified from the now extensive literature on both types of organisation.

To visualise this framework, we can imagine that bureaucracy lies at one end of the continuum while learning organisations are at the other end of the continuum. Along this continuum, there may be numerous elements of both bureaucracy and learning organisations. The key issue in relation to MIRB then, is how far it can be pushed towards the learning organisation end of the continuum. Throughout the history of organisations, the key issues have revolved around co-ordination, power,

and control. In addressing these organisational issues, assumptions have to be made about human nature, knowledge, leadership and the nature of power. It is to a discussion of these that follows.

3.4 Human Nature, Intelligence and Motivation

This section begins by looking at the view of intelligence in a bureaucracy. In the west, during the period between the First World War and the nineteen-seventies the dominant view of intelligence was that it followed the normal or bell curve. This meant that only a few at the top of the organisation were considered sufficiently intelligent to make the key executive decisions while the majority in white collar bureaucracies fell either side of 'average' intelligence. The idea of a lifelong career provided stability and hopefully commitment on the part of workers while for those in the top positions it has enabled them to identify and 'sponsor' talent into senior management positions (Brown and Lauder, 2001).

These assumptions of intelligence in the West also hold true for Malaysia. From the historical background laid out in Chapter 2, there is clear evidence that Malaysian modern bureaucracy was an extension of the British model and a means of preserving the ruling elite. The Malaysian bureaucracy, which was set up by the British in the 19th century, was an imported model of the British bureaucracy, which has evolved over time to suit local needs⁵. The Malay ruling elite who is mostly educated in the UK controls access to the top post in the Malaysian bureaucracy. As

⁵ However, given a western model of bureaucracy set up in a totally different cultural context, the underlying values of the Malaysian culture has produced a unique bureaucracy of its own. Malaysian values such as loyalty and hierarchical social and organisational structure tend to be reinforced in the bureaucracy. In further discussion and findings of the research we will see that the attempts to create a flatter organisation structure has not achieved the intended goals.

such, intelligence becomes a control 'commodity' of a certain groups who want to sustain power and control.

This 'dim' view of intelligence (Brown and Lauder, 2001) limit the autonomy and discretion of workers to develop knowledge and take initiatives because it is assumed that there will be a ceiling to their intelligence. Therefore, the fundamental and key decisions in relation to knowledge and innovation will be taken by the most able senior management.

In relation to motivation, bureaucracy assumes that people are brought to the workplace to achieve the goals of an organisation by means of extrinsic incentives and sanctions. In the absence of incentives and sanctions, workers are likely to shirk. This is because, the nature of work is so prescribed that it has little intrinsic interest, therefore it is only by extrinsic rewards that workers will be kept on task. According to Merton (1957), one of the consequences is that higher goals or aims are displaced by workers so that means become ends in themselves. As a result workers focus on the minutiae of their work rather than seeing the bigger picture and how they might be able to contribute to it. Without understanding the bigger picture or the aims of their work, it is difficult to see how they can innovate because innovation involves understanding that there are better ways of achieving a given end.

A further consequence of a system focused largely on extrinsic rewards is that creativity is extinguished. As Thompson (1972) argues:

The extrinsic reward system, administered by the hierarchy of authority stimulates conformity rather than innovation. Creativity is promoted by an internal commitment, by intrinsic rewards for the most part...Hierarchical competition [sponsored upward mobility] is highly individualistic and malevolent. It does not contribute to co-operation and group problem solving (p.123).

A further problem concerns the fact that individuals need to leave their 'irrelevant' personality behind as they enter the organisation. This is done by regulating conduct through formal written rules and duties of their offices. They are themselves treated as categories or functionaries and do the same to their clients. As Merton (1957) notes:

...functionaries minimise personal relations and resort to categorization, the peculiarities of individual cases are often ignored...Stereotyped behaviour is not adapted to the exigencies of individual problems (p.202).

This machine type behaviour is driven by the fact that bureaucrats have to adhere to sets of abstract principles and rules, which they cannot change and are unlikely to be able to influence. Hence, the very nature of the abstractions they operate with act against the possibility of innovation. In reality, however, people are never so totally subsumed into their roles because they come to the organisation as individuals with needs and expectations for which they seek satisfaction (Beetham, 1996). The failure to recognise the fact that individuals have rights, needs and expectations in the workplace will have serious implications on their performance.

During the 1950s and 1960s several critics made this point in various ways. For example, Simon (1957) stated that decision making in organisations involves a compromise between rational, goal-oriented behaviour and non-rational behaviour. He also rejected the Neo-Classical economic assumption of man as a rational being because in reality, the world is bounded by limitations. The limitation can be in the form of information, individual psychology or inherent in the structure of the organisation itself. In contrast to Weber's view of man as a rational being, Simon saw his model of 'man' as one of bounded rationality.

Similarly, Bennis (1972) criticised bureaucracy for failing to allow for personal growth. The bureaucrat's employment contract, he argued, especially in the civil service, offers great job security in exchange for loyalty to official policies and procedures. The employees of a bureaucracy are expected to segregate personal prejudices and agendas from the need to perform their duties impartially, objectively, without prejudice or passion, but just according to 'the book'.

In other words, bureaucracy tends to exclude emotions (Fineman, 1993, 1996). The assumption that bureaucracy is a rational system resulted in treating human emotion especially the employees' as trivial and thus emotions are considered as 'irrational'. The bureaucratic organisation maintains this duality in thinking by reinforcing the advantages of rule mindedness, impersonality, and hierarchical control as corollaries of effective organisational performance. Emotions if they serve a purpose in the bureaucratic system, do so by becoming part of the labour process as something to be managed and controlled in the interest of productivity (Domagalski, 1999).

As a consequence of the above, bureaucracies take the view that emotions in organisations somehow need to be regulated. Only a limited range of emotional expression tends to be socially acceptable. Negative emotions such as fear, anxiety and anger tend to be unacceptable (Ashforth, Blake and Humphrey, 1995). In a public service organisation such as MIRB, the officers are trained to preclude emotions and sustain their sense of rationality in dealing with their clients. Normal to most bureaucratic practices, staffs are not encouraged to accept gifts of any kind from their clients. This leads to feelings of suspicion and mistrust of the superior by their subordinates who are friendly with clients.

Emotions need to be regulated because in accordance with the machine like rationality of the bureaucratic model there can be no conflict within it. Conflict leads to unpredictability and uncertainty and these pose a threat to the very nature of bureaucracy and its functions. However, as Thompson (1972) points out:

The inability to legitimize conflict depresses creativity. Conflict generates problems and uncertainties and diffuses ideas. Conflict implies pluralism and force coping and searching for solutions, whereas concentrated authority can simply ignore obstacles and objections. Conflict, therefore, encourages innovation (p.122).

A lack of conflict assumes, regardless of the employee's ethnic and cultural background, that these groups should be able to work together to treat customers/clients of other ethnic groups equitably under the law and the policies of the organisation. In effect, the classic model of bureaucracy seems to demand its workers to behave like robots. This mechanistic model is more suitable for organisation's operating in a stable internal and external environment but a lack of conflict may be unhealthy in an unstable environment where innovation is necessary. The issue of conflict leads into the modalities of power and control.

3.5 Power, Control and Co-ordination

These variables are inter-related and one factor will influence the others. In a bureaucracy, the source of power comes from the formal authority, which is clearly justified through the organisation structure, rules and regulations. Rules in bureaucracy are used both to facilitate the achievement of organisation goals and as a mechanism of control by the superiors over their subordinates and also to co-ordinate the organisation's activities.

Weber described the legitimate exercise of power in three forms: charismatic authority, traditional authority and legal authority. Traditional authority rests on the belief in the sacredness of the religious and social order, while charismatic authority rests on the affection and personal devotion of followers to leaders. He placed power in bureaucracy under the category of legal authority. In this type of power, the leader obtains his/her position through legal mechanisms. Obedience involves not complying to individuals but to the enacted rules and regulations.

Morgan (1986) stresses that in bureaucracy, power and accountability are intimately connected with one's knowledge and use of the rules and the law-like form of administration that this implies. The pattern of power and authority is fairly stable and clearly defined. The common type of formal authority in most organisations is associated with the position or designation one holds. The various organisational positions are usually defined in terms of rights and obligations, which create a field of influence where one can legitimately operate.

However, this type of knowledge is not the kind that leads to innovation. Rather it is there to preserve the existing structures. There are two problems with this type of power structure in relation to knowledge, learning and innovation. The first is that knowledge creation resides at the top of the hierarchy. Knowledge cannot be developed and hence learning cannot take place without it at least being sanctioned by the leadership. Moreover, as we have seen, there are good reasons for believing that the system of control of employees will tend to stifle any ideas that they may have. The second is that experts within the bureaucracy will have limited autonomy. All bureaucracies require those with expert knowledge to advise them, whether they are lawyers, accountants or engineers. The relationship between their professional knowledge and the potential autonomy it gives them, is a problem for any

bureaucracy, creating a tension between the overall system of control and their expertise. Some (Blau, 1967; Montagna 1968 and Mintzberg 1983a, 1983b) have argued that there are different types of bureaucracy including professional bureaucracies which might suggest that, in fact, bureaucracies can overcome the kinds of problem and tension implicit in a hierarchical form of control. Therefore, Mintzberg's argument needs to be examined in greater detail later in the chapter.

3.6 Management–Employee Relationships

At the base of this relationship, the most crucial factor is the level of trust between management and employees. In this thesis, trust is viewed as germane to learning and is required to facilitate all other activities and changes in the organisation. There are three general reasons for this in the context of the limitations of bureaucracy. Learning in bureaucracies is tightly related to knowledge of rules, routines and precedents, it is therefore a relatively closed or prescribed type of knowledge which requires little initiative.

However, as we shall see in the next chapter, learning which is meant to advance understanding and innovation is more open ended, requires initiative on the part of workers and even risk taking. These qualities require a different kind of personality to Merton's bureaucratic personality and they also require institutional support in the form of trust. Learning new kinds of knowledge and the risks associated with it require the confidence to make mistakes and this confidence can only be achieved if workers know they will not be punished for them. At a more general level an organisation can only change in the light of what it learns if again, there is a high degree of trust that not all innovations can get right the first time.

Finally, Brown and Lauder (1992) argue that bureaucracy will encounter difficulties in creating high trust relations. The systematic division of labour with clearly specified duties in a bureaucracy serves as a system of workforce surveillance. According to Fox (1974), these highly developed divisions of labour, which characterises the bureaucratic organisation, is based on low discretion work roles and assumes low trust relations. The fundamental and basic feature of a low discretion work role is that:

The role occupant perceives superordinates as behaving as if they believe he cannot be trusted, of his own volition, to deliver a work performance which accords with the goals they wish to see pursued or the values they wish to see observed (Fox, 1974: 26).

As a result, employees have responded by demonstrating minimum levels of commitment. A low trust organisation will, therefore, not be able to utilise the skills and knowledge it possesses to a maximum. The predominant surveillance culture in a bureaucracy further aggravates the low level of trust in the organisation. The low trust phenomenon will further impact on learning and dissemination of knowledge in the organisation because even if individuals acquire new knowledge, they will not share it with others for fear of their ideas being poached.

In principle, the dissemination of knowledge across all levels in the organisation can be achieved through effective communication. However, the traditional top-down pattern of communication in bureaucracy tends to be formal. Clearly defined rules and procedures in bureaucracy bring clarity of roles and goals, which contributes to the efficiency and effectiveness of the unit and persons in the organisation. However, the drawback of this vertical communication is that it does not disseminate information and knowledge horizontally across the organisation (Lovell, 1994). The formal nature of the communications is likely to create barriers in interpersonal relationships in the organisation. While this is very common in Asian

culture in general and Malaysian culture in particular, such an environment will inhibit both vertical and horizontal learning. Abdullah (1992a) stressed that the Malaysian culture sees leaders as a source of knowledge, which means that people at the top are assumed to be more knowledgeable than their subordinates. This would mean that knowledge in Malaysian organisations tend to flow from top to bottom.

The bureaucratic paradigm stresses the need for tasks to be allocated strictly according to the principles of superordination and subordination. Hence, obedience and compliance are strongly emphasised as organisational values. Therefore, the focus is on recruiting people who show the ability to learn the rules and are prepared to be compliant within specific roles and be able to work with each other within a functionally interdependent division of labour. Qualities such as creativity, entrepreneurship and individualism are seen as undermining the bureaucratic culture (Brown and Scase, 1992).

In a highly stable society the problems associated with inflexibility in learning within a low trust organisation may not have appeared great. As Bennis (1972) has argued:

Bureaucracy thrives in a highly competitive, undifferentiated and stable environment, such as the climate of its youth, the Industrial Revolution. A pyramidal structure of authority, with power concentrated in the hands of the few with the knowledge and resources to control an entire enterprise was, and is, an eminently suitable arrangement for routinized tasks (p.11).

Given the conditions under which bureaucracy functions well, Merton (1957) has examined the inherent efficiencies and shortcomings of bureaucracy. The structure of a bureaucracy, which is guided by rules and hierarchy, contributes to a well-defined sphere of jurisdiction in which every case dealt with is pigeon-holed. He further claims that this categorisation of responsibility and highly structured environment creates efficiency. The rules imposed eliminate the personalised

behaviour that is inherent in a more organically structured organisation. However, there is a trade-off to these efficiencies because the categorisation of every case according to the rules and precedents of the bureaucracy can lead to inappropriate action on a given problem if the problem is unforeseen by those who make the regulations. This can result in adaptability being compromised for efficiency. But underpinning the problem of adaptability are the wider issues of trust and learning. Having discussed the relevance of trust in this context the following discussion would be on learning in greater depth.

3.7 Bureaucratic, Innovation and the Knowledge of Experts

Weber recognised the superiority of bureaucracy in knowledge, including both technical knowledge and the knowledge of concrete fact over other forms of organisation. However, learning is concentrated on the individuals who are at the higher levels of the organisation and it is their learning which is given priority since they are centrally involved in decision making.

First, the issue that we need to consider in this section is, how bureaucracy handles technical knowledge amongst its elite if for the majority knowledge is merely that of routinised tasks, rules and precedents. In terms of technical knowledge, it may be assumed, from the comments made previously that bureaucracies innovate very little. In relation to modern organisations, that may be true. However, this is not to say that bureaucracies do not innovate at all. The issue is how this is done and, in particular, how it relates to learning within bureaucratic organisations. The second aspect of technical knowledge, concerns the way bureaucracy handles experts and their knowledge: what is the relationship between the professional knowledge of experts who usually require and are given a degree of autonomy and the idea that

bureaucracies are partly defined by the limited autonomy and discretion workers in bureaucracy are normally given.

In relation to the first issue Thompson (1972) has argued that bureaucracies deal with innovation by creating separate innovation units whose specific function is to generate innovation. In effect a group of workers are given license to think more freely, those innovations are then fed into the rest of the organisation changing rules and routines as appropriate. However, the problems in seeing innovation as a special activity are considerable. As Morgan (1997) has noted, this is an example of the way bureaucracies fragment patterns of thought and action. Where hierarchical and horizontal divisions are particularly strong, information and knowledge rarely flow in a free manner. Different sectors of the organisation thus often operate on the basis of different pictures of the total situation. The result is that innovations may be difficult to disseminate within an organisation because they are seen to be coming 'from outside' and hence being imposed on the various divisions within the rest of the bureaucracy. In turn, this gives rise to resistance to change. Innovation then becomes something, which is not part of organisational culture, but more like a sudden change in the weather or a catastrophe, which is something to be endured from time to time.

With respect to the issue of expert autonomy, Mintzberg (1979) has attempted to deal with this question through the notion of a professional bureaucracy. This concept is particularly appropriate to look at in the context of this thesis because Mintzberg argues that it is relevant to public organisations like universities, hospitals, schools and public accounting firms of which revenue organisations would be an example. His characterisation of the Professional Bureaucracy is therefore of particular relevance in identifying the degree to which MIRB is a Professional

Bureaucracy, but also in establishing the degree to which such a bureaucracy can enable the kinds of learning and change associated with today's learning or adaptive (Brown and Scase, 1994) organisations.

3.7.1 *Mintzberg's Conception of A Professional Bureaucracy*

Mintzberg argued that the professional bureaucracy has four characteristics. These are as follows: (i) co-ordination through the standardisation of skills and training and indoctrination into the appropriate attitudes and orientations required of professionals; (ii) the application of these skills is achieved through a process of 'pigeonholing' based on a repertoire of standard programmes and routines within which the skills are applied. In pigeonholing, the professional has two tasks: diagnosis in which the client's needs are categorised and matched to the appropriate programme or routine followed by the execution of the appropriate programme (iii) the standards colleagues are expected to achieve are determined by outside professional associations (iv) decision-making is collective by professionals in matters that affect them. Hence, professional bureaucracies are decentralised in terms of decision-making having a flatter structure than that of the type of bureaucracy previously discussed. It is because of the flatter structure and the fact that standards are determined by professional associations outside the professional bureaucracy that co-ordination is by the standardisation of skill and socialisation, rather than by explicit rules and regulations determined by a hierarchical elite. Two further points need to be made about the work in professional bureaucracies. The first is that the repertoire of standard programmes is applied to pre-determined standard situations, which Mintzberg called contingencies. This then simplifies matters since, if every client were treated as unique it would be enormously time consuming. However, professionals are given considerable discretion in

determining which set of skills or routines applies to which pre-determined case or situation.

There is no doubt that Mintzberg captured some of the essence of professional work in which there are standard routines and often pre-determined standard situations to which they can be applied. But at its heart, there is little room for innovation in response to changes in the external environment or indeed changes in skill sets because fundamentally, according to his account the combination of learning and perfecting complex routines and indoctrination make fundamental changes in the organisation on the basis of learning and innovation difficult. Indeed, Mintzberg had little to say about innovation and we can only assume that since the professional association determines standards, changes in skill sets and routines are determined by the professional association often in response to research and then imported into the organisation. This places a heavy reliance on in-service training which enables new ideas to be brought into the organisation from outside but innovation and learning are not integral to the organisation itself.

A professional bureaucracy, as defined by Mintzberg, has limitations in terms of both innovation and learning. This analysis also connects with the notion of innovation in bureaucracy as we have previously described it. For as with traditional or as Mintzberg called it, machine bureaucracy, innovation is separate from the organisation and has to be imported into it. Similarly, learning in terms of changes to rules, regulations or routines only change when it comes from the outside, whether it is from an innovation unit or a professional association. In both cases change will be difficult because of the resistance to entrenched positions of power and the resistance to change they may offer, if they are threatened.

Given these limitations of even professional bureaucracies when it comes to innovation, learning and change it is worth asking the question of whether and in what ways elements of bureaucracy are still relevant today?

3.8 The Nature of Knowledge and Learning in a Bureaucracy

In recent years, many scholars have tended to 'bash' bureaucracy and several forms of organisation have emerged as alternatives. The basic question that needs to be addressed is whether there is a basis for rejecting completely the bureaucratic model, which Weber claimed to be the most superior form of organisation? The key question is, has the world now changed so radically that no element of bureaucracy is relevant? Ironically, one of Weber's best known generalisations is that, 'the bureaucratic machine will ordinarily continue to operate essentially unchanged even in the face of revolutionary changes in the society.' The core problem of public bureaucracies as we can see from the discussions above is the rigidity associated with innovation, learning and change.

In some ways organisational change away from bureaucracies, as described above, was inevitable, due to changes in technology and state expectations. Work is becoming more complex, the workforce is more diversified and public expectation of government organisations or agencies have also changed. The unique power of informing technology as described by Zuboff (1988) has not only challenged the nature of work in the workplace but also the kind of hierarchical authority characteristic of bureaucracies. In a public organisation, the use of computers in communication can result in bypassing certain levels of hierarchy in the organisation, which may be considered an offence in a traditional bureaucratic organisation.

Much of the rapid innovation and expansion of the past twenty years has happened in relation to private organisations but it has to be matched with the readiness of public organisations to cope with their counterparts in the private sector. This is especially true in developing countries where public organisations have, in one way or another, a major influence over the economic environment at least in terms of policies, which affect private organisations and their stakeholders. Taxation is one of the areas where the policies, services rendered and other tax authority activities do have bearing on the business world. However, the nature of knowledge and learning in bureaucracy tends to be slow to change and for those changes to be transferred through the organisation. Therefore, we need to examine these issues in greater detail if we are to understand the challenges confronting bureaucracies.

Learning in bureaucracies is about learning routines, rules and precedents about what cannot be done as much as what can be done, this learning is to do with memory, it can be institutional memory as per manuals, rules and regulations plus the personal memory of experienced members of staff. The application of knowledge is according to pre-established precedents. At the executive level, Morgan (1997) argued that bureaucratic learning is, in Argyris's (1995) account, a form of single-loop learning. This includes the ability to scan the environment, set objectives and monitor the general performance of the system in relation to the objectives. Tacit learning in a bureaucracy will not be about creative learning or about how a culture permits risk taking and learning based on trust, but rather about how to take short cuts to make the job manageable, that is learning about how to exploit loopholes in, for instance rules and regulations. In fact, there is little room for tacit knowledge in a state bureaucracy because of the demands that everyone is

treated equally according to rules and precedents and transparently so that every step in a decision is documented.

Morgan (1997) claims that bureaucracies fail to learn because they often operate in a way that actually obstructs the learning process. Where hierarchical and horizontal divisions are particularly strong, information and knowledge rarely flow in a free manner. Different divisions of the organisation often pursue sub-unit goals almost as ends in themselves. This compartmentalisation of goals can block learning due to self-interest. Consequently, knowledge and learning tends to be restricted.

The old paradigm of training, low trust culture and power based in the hands of relatively few remains a significant problem. Finally, bureaucracies tend to assume that there is a difference between a person's status and function in the organisation. The employee's position in the hierarchy determines their functions, thereby limiting flexibility and the opportunity of employees to perform or develop competencies, and imposing further barrier to learning. However, the case of Economic Development Board (EDB) of Singapore (Schein, 1996) shows that it is possible to have a hierarchy in an organisation but out of a necessity for flexibility people can relate to one another based on function, irrespective of status, when there is a need to do so. The case of the EDB is one to which we shall return.

So far we have been analysing largely the dysfunctional elements of bureaucracy. However, there are certain elements or characteristics of a bureaucracy that will be an advantage in building team culture and focusing on customer/client needs. Bureaucracy emphasises that all clients or citizens should be treated equally at all times so the application of standard rules and procedures has become the trademark of bureaucratic administration. In rendering public service the need to be impartial

is important especially in establishing links with people and other organisations. Such a situation will promote trust between a bureaucracy and its clients and learning avenues could be extended not only within the organisation but also by learning from customers and clients.

In the Malaysian public sector, Pillai, Pharmy and Thiruchelvan (1995) noted that transparency and accountability are important because the public sector has a profound and pervasive effect on the lives of the citizen and on the activities of the private sector. Transparency and openness, debate and discussion can improve the analysis, articulation and acceptance of policy choices and decisions. It can strengthen co-operation between public and private sectors and instil greater trust between government and citizens. It is also a necessary, though insufficient, means to curb corruption. Closed, unaccountable and uncontested decision-making increases the danger of corruption, diversion of public resources and the risk of costly mistakes and policy rejection. Clearly, any organisation that seeks to overcome the deficiencies of bureaucracy with respect to learning will, nevertheless need to hold on to these principles of equal treatment or impartiality and transparency.

However, if the problems' bureaucracies posed for learning are acute, it is not immediately obvious what can replace them. Hayek (1937, 1945) has argued that markets are more efficient in processing and mediating knowledge. Although, as Williamson (1975) has noted, markets have in the past typically been dominated by giant corporations. But even if Hayek is correct in principle⁶, by definition state organisations are not market organisations, although, in theory, quasi market

⁶ Research discussed in the next chapter by Nahapiet and Goshal (1997) suggests that social capital may be superior to the market in generating innovation and learning.

systems may be introduced into them in order to simulate market conditions. In the absence of the latter, and there cannot be a quasi market for taxation! innovation, knowledge and learning have to be gained in other ways.

One alternative for another form of organisation, which is popular in the present climate is that of a learning organisation (Garavan, 1997; Senge, 1990; Pedler *et al*, 1989, 1992, 1997). This concept has usually been applied to firms in the private sector rather than to public sector organisations, although it has gained currency in education. The fact that the private sector was first to experience global competition led to a greater need for designing organisations that can learn (Young and Guile, 1996). However, state organisations and agencies now need to follow suit.

3.9 Summary

As a typical government agency, MIRB has undergone numerous changes. Its historical development shows that the organisation has moved rapidly from a traditional government bureaucracy into a new set up with a certain degree of financial flexibility. In this chapter, we have presented a critical review of the Western model of bureaucracy and assessed the extent to which MIRB has approximated this model. As this point, it is worth noting that many features of MIRB tend to approximate the professional bureaucracy as described by Mintzberg.

The problem of bureaucratic organisations has led us to suggest for MIRB a more organic (Burn and Stalker, 1961) form of organisation such as the learning organisation, which gained its prominence in the late 20th century, and this may be a fruitful direction to take. However, the limitations of bureaucracy in terms of learning and innovation raises further questions:

- Can MIRB become a learning organisation after all?
- If yes, what aspects of bureaucracy does MIRB need to compromise to become a learning organisation?

The following chapter will focus on the learning organisation literature and we will be examining the various issues and dimensions of learning organisation.

CHAPTER 4: WHAT IS A LEARNING ORGANISATION?

4.1 Introduction

In chapter 3, we focused the discussion on bureaucracy and in particular the nature of learning and innovation in the ideal-typical bureaucracy. In this chapter, we review and critique recent popular contributions to the literature on learning organisations with the intention of clarifying the key concepts and related themes and issues. The more sophisticated concepts relevant to learning in organisations will be discussed. Finally, the organisational conditions necessary for a learning organisation will be examined. In doing so, it raises the theoretical criticisms of the possibility of a learning organisation.

The notion of a learning organisation was developed in response to the perceived rigidities of bureaucratic organisations that it is often assumed can no longer survive in the current economic conditions. In the Western economy there is a huge process of organisation restructuring in an attempt to breakdown the rigidities of bureaucracy. This shift in paradigm is now happening in both private and public organisations (Brown and Lauder, 2001).

4.2 The Popular Concept of a Learning Organisation

While the concept of the learning organisation became popular in the late 1980's, many of the ideas associated with it were already in existence and extended back to Merton's critique of 'trained incapacity' in bureaucracies and Burns and Stalker's

notion of organic forms of organisation. Similarly, learning is central to Zuboff's (1988) notion of an informed organisation. What happened in the late 1980s was that many of these ideas, already in existence, were popularised for the management market, in particular by Hayes *et al* (1988), Senge (1990), Senge *et al* (1999) and Pedler *et al* (1989).

In this section, the focus will be on Senge's work because he is the most high profile advocate of learning organisations and it typifies the approach in much of the literature. Senge (1990), defined a learning organisation as an:

Organisation where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to learn together (p. 3).

Senge's definition is based on his theory that "you cannot not learn because learning is so insinuated into the fabric of life." This leads to the notion that to truly excel, organisations must be able to tap people's commitment and capacity to learn at all levels. He then develops five building blocks for a learning organisation: personal mastery, mental models, creating a shared vision, team learning and systems thinking. The key to understanding Senge's approach to learning organisations lies in his opening sentence to the first building block, that of personal mastery. Here, he says:

Organisations learn only through individuals who learn (1990: 139).

From this point on, the discussion of all the building blocks emphasises the role of the individual while making little reference to the framework that an organisation can provide for the individual. For him, personal mastery is related to the discipline of continually clarifying and deepening the personal vision, of focusing the energies, of developing patience, and of seeing reality objectively. It is important he argued

that people in organisations learn to manage the tension between vision and reality, which will enhance their capacities to make better choices, and achieve more than the results that they desire.

The closest he comes, in this chapter, to talking about the nature of learning organisations is when he asked what leaders intent on fostering personal mastery can do? He responds as follows:

They can work relentlessly to foster a climate in which the principles of personal mastery are practised in daily life. That means building an organisation where it is safe for people to create visions, where inquiry and commitment to the truth are the norm, and where challenging the status quo is expected (p. 172).

There are two points that arise from his comments. The first concerns one of the distinctive features of learning in such an organisation, that it challenges fundamental assumptions. The second is that, to do so requires trust and it might have been expected that Senge would spend some time discussing trust in relation to organisations but he fails to do so.

Mental Models are deeply ingrained assumptions, generalisations, or even pictures or images that influence how people understand the world and how they take action. In working with mental models, one has to reflect upon oneself through the possession of appropriate inquiry skills. By continually reflecting upon, talking about, and reconsidering these internal pictures of the world, people can gain more capability in governing their actions and decisions. Again, we might expect Senge to reflect on how organisations can encourage and facilitate thinking about mental models. Here, he once more opened up the discussion to this issue:

Developing an organisation's capacity to work with mental models involves both learning new skills and implementing institutional innovations that help bring these skills into regular practice (Senge 1990: 186).

However, these institutional innovations amount to no more than changes in attitude. The first innovation concerns bringing key assumptions to the surface (p.186) and the second that managers have to develop face to face learning skills so that the techniques of examining what is 'below the surface' are learnt by all managers. Overall this requires them combining business and interpersonal skills (p.187).

Building shared visions refers to the fostering of genuine commitment rather than compliance. This collective discipline establishes a focus on mutual purpose where people learn to nourish a sense of commitment in the organisation that is effected through teamwork. It is for this reason that Senge emphasised the importance of team learning and that teams are recognised as the fundamental learning unit in the modern organisation. According to Senge (1990) team learning:

Is the process of aligning and developing the capacity of a team to create the results its members truly desire. It builds on the discipline of developing shared vision...Though it involves individual skills and areas of understanding team learning is a collective discipline...[it] involves mastering the practices of dialogue and discussion, the two distinct ways that teams converse (pp.236-237).

Senge went on to discuss how dialogue and discussion can be developed but what he failed to do is to identify that teams can be structured differently and can have different power dynamics internally and in relation to the wider organisation. All these points are central to understanding the success or failure of processes of dialogue and discussion in organisation. In fact, Senge failed to address issues of power and relations of trust which, it will be argued are so central to learning organisations. As a result, Senge and the work of management theorists like him failed to address some of the key issues in relation to the framework needed for a

learning organisation. As importantly, there are layers of learning, central to a learning organisation that, we shall argue, he failed to address.¹

While most of the management contributions that have popularised learning organisations only discuss the issues around face to face learning and changes in psychology (mind set) the concept of a learning organisation is usefully extended in Pedler *et al* (1989, 1992, 1997) and Handy (1993). For example, in the work of Pedler *et al* and Handy the concept of learning is extended to stakeholders and networks. First, let us look at how Pedler *et al* (1992) defined learning organisation;

A learning company is an organisation that facilitates the learning of all its members and *continuously* transforms itself. (1992: 1)

This view as summarised by Dodgson (1993) is based on criteria such as:

- (i) the existence of a climate where individual members are encouraged to learn and develop their full potential,
- (ii) extending the learning culture to the organisation's stakeholders,
- (iii) making human resource development the central organisation policy,

In the above view, Pedler *et al* identified the concepts of learning culture, conducive organisation climate the development of human resources and continuity as the important features of a learning organisation. The development of human resources is done through a continuous process of training. In contrast to some learning organisation theorist who view 'outsiders' as competitors, Pedler *et al* recognised the notion of learning from stakeholders through joint ventures, joint training, sharing investment in Research and Development (R & D) and job exchanges.

¹ In Senge *et al* (1999) the issues of trust and power are raised but again they are couched in terms of individuals' relationships with one another (p.156). The issue of the degree of autonomy that teams may have in relation to their organisation is also raised, as an issue of power but is not really developed.

In their perspective learning has been placed in a wider global perspective as they see:

While developing the competence for survival and learning is an important requirement for the individual organization, it is also part of a wider awareness of the interconnections between units. ...At this level learning is not just for individual survival and adaptation but for mutually sustaining relationships in a stable ecology (Pedler *et al*, 1992: 148).

Pedler *et al* (1997) later added another element to their concept of a learning organisation, which is developing learning opportunities through the creation of favourable learning climate and self-development opportunities for all. Perhaps realising that learning in a learning organisation goes beyond those structured learning in formal training, they rephrased the definition of a learning organisation as:

An organisation that facilitates the learning of all its members and *consciously* transform itself and its context (1997: 3)

They argued that the fact that individuals in the organisation are learning does not mean that the organisation will act 'intelligently' and as one. The environment necessary for the organisation to learn would be a climate where people are open and willing to share their ideas and experience. This, therefore, acknowledges that there is more to a learning organisation than just issues of individual learning. However, they retreat from this insight by talking about individual self-development. They emphasise that the first principle of self-development "is that each of us must take the primary responsibility for deciding what it is we want or need to learn (p.173)." However, determining one's own learning needs is not an easy task and the possibility of learning to fit one's purpose and goal has the potential of breeding opportunism (Williamson, 1975). To reduce opportunism, there has to be congruity of goals as to why learning is important for both individuals and the organisation itself.

At this point, Handy (1993) in contrast of Pedler *et al*, proposed that people learn better in group interaction which leads to the development of inter-personal and interactive skills and which enhances informal learning. He proposed that there are four elements that are crucial to enable individuals to learn in groups:

- Learning must take place and applied in a group context.
- Individuals are given feedback as to their learning needs.
- Activities and behaviour directly related to those needs must be organised.
- Individual must be given the opportunity to try revised behaviour in the same context he/she learnt them.

Learning in a group, as proposed by Handy, could reduce opportunism where individuals are brought collectively towards a common goal but to a certain extent it raises another problem. His emphasis on learning within the context of the group might lead to the fact that learning is localised within the group so that best practice is not generalised within the organisation. However, learning collectively can be improved through the establishment of trust within and across the group, team and organisation. This issue will be discussed later in the chapter.

While Senge, Pedler *et al*, and Handy have made some contributions to the literature by raising the issues of team learning, informal learning, the role of networks and stakeholders, it will be apparent from the literature reviewed above that the concept of a learning organisation has remained vague. One of the major critics of this literature Garavan (1997) has summarised the general problems. In order to do so he divided the learning organisation literature into two broad categories: one which treats the learning organisation as a variable that can be designed into an organisation, in other words that 'learning' can be engineered into an organisation. This is effectively the assumption underlying Senge's work, while the other treats

learning organisation as a metaphor and views them as a particular variant of culture. More specifically, those who view the learning organisation as a variable, believe that the relevant traits making for a learning organisation can be identified and such traits can influence employee's behaviour and the organisation's performance.

The main question from this perspective is how to design an organisation so as to create a learning organisation. Treating the learning organisation from a root metaphor perspective is to view organisations as if they are essentially learning cultures. The learning culture is not seen as objective but as constructed by people and reproduced by a network of symbols and meanings that unites people and make shared learning possible. However, this is not the way in which many of those who embrace the learning organisation notion think about it (Garavan, 1997). The question, which comes out of Garavan's discussion which of particular relevance to this thesis, is whether an organisation culture can be changed to facilitate learning.

Beer and Eisenstat (1996), reinforced this point in their study which showed that the integration of all aspects of strategic alignment, strategy and organisation, hard and soft structures and behaviours are necessary in developing an organisation that can learn. However, complexity should not be a deterrent to thinking clearly about such an important issue and Garavan (1997) listed the problems in relation to both views expressed in the literature, such as:

- the neglect or shallow treatment of intra-organisational phenomena² the nature of learning itself;

² By intra organisational phenomenon, Garavan is referring to the various levels of learning in an organisation, which he sees as contradictory and influenced by hidden political agendas, different perceptual models and unconscious processes.

- the lack of an accepted theory of what comprises culture and the climate of a learning organisation, the influence of organisational size;
- the role of teamwork within learning and the fundamental question of whether we should see the learning organisation as a variable that can be engineered or as a root metaphor.

Given what has already been said above about this particular management genre we can only agree with Garavan that more work needs to be done on this issue!

The challenge, therefore, is to see if the concept of a learning organisation can be made clearer before embarking on the further question of whether such an organisation can be created. As Garavan has pointed out, many of the key concepts involved in thinking about learning organisations such as culture are slippery and not easy to define. Yet, in a world in which knowledge and learning are at a premium in making organisations more effective, we should not leave the creation of learning organisations to chance if we do not have to. This research hopes to take a wider perspective on the concept of learning organisation than is often the case in the literature, taking into account some of the less tangible characteristics. In particular, the questions of trust and the understanding of power relationships in organisations, which are hypothesised as germane to building a learning organisation, will be examined.

4.3 Beyond Critique: Developing a More Adequate Model of Learning Organisation

In building a more adequate theory of the learning organisation, the next section will look at the concept of social capital and the role that it may play in understanding learning organisations.

4.3.1 Social Capital Theory

The theory of social capital was developed, amongst others by an American sociologist James Coleman (1988, 1990). Social capital may be defined as those resources inherent in social relations, which facilitate collective action. Social capital resources include trust, norms, and networks of association representing any group, which gathers consistently for a common purpose. He distinguished it from the more tangible economic concepts of physical capital and human capital. By social capital, he is referring to the features of the social organisation that exist in the relations among persons, such as social networks based on trust, co-operation goodwill and reciprocity. Coleman also pointed out that unlike physical capital and human capital, social capital is of collective rather than individual benefit. In economic terms, social capital is a public good rather than a private good and the benefit it brings cannot be captured easily like other investments.

Initially, the term social capital emerged in community studies which stressed the importance of establishing networks and relationships in inner city neighbourhoods providing the basis for trust, co-operation and collective action in the communities (Jacobs, 1995). Social capital can also be viewed as a set of resources that inhere in family relations (Bourdieu, 1997) and is also useful for understanding the community's role in the development of young children (Coleman, 1997). Since then the concept has been sufficiently flexible to be applied to a wide range of social phenomenon, including business organisations. The most significant work in this area has been that of Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1997) and it will be used as a heuristic in developing the notion of a learning organisation because this brings together some of the key concepts involved. In particular, they link the social dimensions of an organisation to the way it learns.

Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1997) explored the role of social capital in the creation of intellectual capital by considering three facets or dimensions of the concept of social capital: the structural, the relational and the cognitive.

- Structural dimensions relate to the properties of social system and of the network of relation between people or units as a whole (Garnovetter's 1992).
- Relational dimensions refer to personal relationships people have developed with each other through time (Garnovetter's 1992).
- Cognitive dimensions concern on the shared representations, interpretation and system of meanings (Cicourel, 1973).

Intellectual capital for them involves generating the ideas for innovation, which in turn is based on the collective learning of the organisation. Their essential insight is that co-operative behaviour can generate innovation. In turn, the three dimensions cited above influence co-operative behaviour. The structural dimension gives people access and opportunity to work together to combine and exchange ideas but in order for this to happen the relationships must be based on trust, shared norms and obligations and on a shared sense of identity and common purpose (the relational dimension). Finally, implicit in this sharing are meanings, language codes and narratives. In these ways they argued that social capital can be seen as a foundation or framework for learning and innovation.

However, in order to access these relationships in relation to learning, organisations involve different types of knowledge and knowing. New knowledge cannot be created unless workers within the organisation also have an understanding of the existing forms of knowledge. These operate at different levels and support the creation of new knowledge through these networks in various ways. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1997) following Spender (1996) identified four different elements to an organisation's knowledge. The first two elements are inherent in individuals and

relate to explicit and implicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge concerns the facts, theories and understandings that individuals retain whilst tacit knowledge or what Spender called automatic knowledge concerns the standards of judgement and ways of doing things, which are routinely applied. In contrast to individuals' knowledge, organisational knowledge inheres in objectified knowledge, which is the shared corpus of knowledge of an organisation, rather like that of the scientific community, and in socially tacit knowledge:

.... the knowledge that is fundamentally embedded in the forms of social and institutional practice and that reside in the tacit experiences and enactment of the collective (Spender, 1996: 7).

This type of knowledge will include shared standards of judgement about what constitutes good practice and these will be 'communicated' to individuals without often having them made explicit. For example, for an Inland Revenue Department there will always be judgements to be made about the thin line between tax avoidance and evasion and when to prosecute and when not. Part of these judgements will be explicit and made on a reading of the law but others will be based on institutional memory as to what has happened in the past in similar cases. Details of particular past cases may be forgotten but the lessons learned from them may be incorporated into the tacit knowledge of the organisation.

Explicit knowledge of individuals and organisations forms the foundation for the discussion of new ideas but the discussion of these ideas will not be productive unless an individual has acquired both types of tacit knowledge. What these tacit forms of knowledge do is to enable the discussion about explicit ideas to take place within a framework of shared understandings. Together these forms of knowledge constitute an organisations collective intellectual capital.

Nahapiet and Ghoshal bring us a long way forward in thinking about learning organisations, but their work is underdeveloped in four related areas: those of the nature of trust, the role of power in the process of generating intellectual capital, in their assumptions that all will co-operate on the basis of trust and the nature of learning. These issues relate to the key categories for looking at organisations developed in the previous chapter of: Human Nature and Intelligence, Power Control and Co-ordination, Management-Employee Relationships, and Learning and Knowledge. In dealing with these issues we will get closer to understanding how an organisation can develop its collective intelligence (Brown and Lauder, 2001) on the basis of collective learning.

Trust is an important element of social capital that is crucial in promoting learning in organisations. Collective learning cannot take place unless individuals trust their colleagues. If they do not trust their colleagues, they will not share ideas leading to what we have called information rigidity (Brown and Lauder, 2001). Gambetta (1988) has emphasised the reciprocal nature of trust and argued that if it is bestowed unconditionally it will enhance a sense of responsibility in the recipients of it. As much as trust can breed more trust, conversely distrust will create more distrust, producing a vicious circle. The trustworthiness of an individual benefits him/herself and every other person with whom he or she interacts. In contrast, once distrust becomes the norm it prevents people from acting in ways that would foster trust and there is no way of knowing whether the distrust is justified. Trust not only enhances learning but also solves other related fundamental organisational problems. Mistral (1996) demonstrated how trust could be a solution to the free rider problem, in which some members of an organisation will coast on the work of others, facilitate co-operation and help people reconcile their own interests with others. Failure of organisations can also be explained in the decline of social capital (Herriot, Hirsh and Reilly, 1998).

The notion of trust in the workplace as emphasised by Fox (1974) gives greater understanding of how people relate to one another. Institutionalised trust developed in an organisation can be a conducive environment in facilitating learning. The trust between subordinates and their superiors can be exemplified in the form of delegating more discretion in the employees' work role. Discretion allows flexibility and thus encourages individuals to learn and develop new areas of expertise. Trust, therefore, presupposes a system of power in which individuals and teams are given autonomy to make decisions, to learn and make mistakes. Without this degree of freedom a system is more likely to resemble a bureaucracy in which decisions are made at the top and simply executed by those below

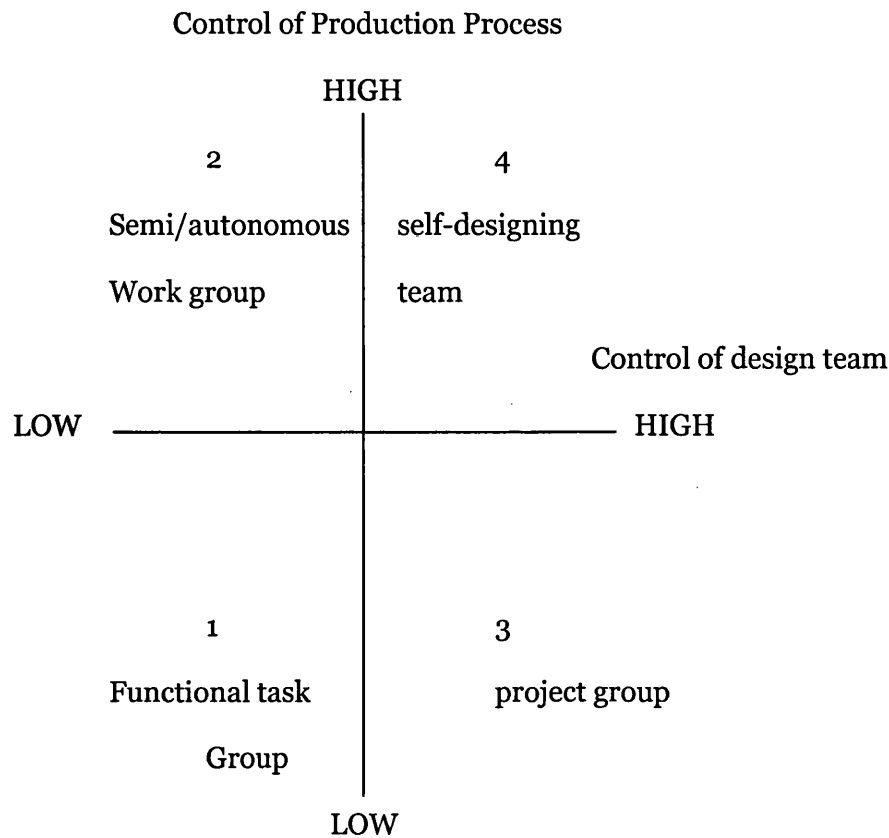
In order to focus this discussion, we should first look at the issue of teams, rightly identified by Senge as a key component in learning organisations. The social capital integral to learning identified by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1997) may provide the network across organisations that underpins team work but inevitably any organisation will need to break down the processes of learning into sub units and these will correspond to the functions and tasks assigned to teams.

4.4 Knowledge and Learning

The key issue in this thesis is in what ways can teams and networks develop learning over and above that of individual learning? Several well known phenomena explain why teams perform well. First, they bring together complementary skills and experience that, by definition, exceed that of any individual on the team. This broader mix of skills and 'know how' enables teams to respond to multifaceted challenges like innovation, quality and customer service. Second, in jointly developing clear goals and approaches, teams establish communications that support real-time problem solving and initiative. Third, teams provide a unique

social dimension that enhances the economic and administrative aspects of work. Fourthly as Handy noted (1995), one person acting alone nowadays can handle few of the problems businesses face. According to him, this is fortunate, because curiosity, experimentation and forgiveness need to be shared. “Lonely learners are often slow and poor learners, whereas people who collaborate learn from each other and create synergy (p.47).” Learning is therefore, a collective activity, which happens not only in individuals but also between teams, subdivisions of the organisation, the organisation itself, and even within the society with which the organisation interacts (Marsick, 1994; Argyris and Schon, 1987).

In cases of larger organisational groupings, where performance requires multiple skills, judgements, and experiences teams tend to outperform individuals (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993). However, teams can be organised in different ways. Cressey and Kelleher (1999) offered a model of different types of team. There are various names that a team can take, such as quality circles, problem solving groups, project groups, semi-autonomous workgroups, high performance teams, self-designing groups and so on. However, the crucial issue in learning for these teams is the degree of power and autonomy these teams have. The typology provided by Cressey and Kelleher (1999) is particularly helpful in this respect.

Figure 4.1: A Typology of Teams in Relation to Autonomy

(Source: Cressey and Kelleher, 1999:38)

Cressey and Kelleher (1999) use the grid above to categorise teams in an organisation. The grid is divided into four quadrants where each quadrant represents the possible ways in which teams can be differentiated according to the level of control of the production process. The team that falls in the first quadrant is a simple functional task group that exists in a defined and structured production process. While this type of team is more often seen in bureaucratic organisations, the fourth quadrant of the grid may represent teams in a learning organisation where the self designing teams are given more autonomy and take on an extensive range of functions. The greater the autonomy of the team, the more likely it will promote team learning, because they have to solve problems for themselves.

As indicated above there needs to be some way of linking learning between teams within an organisation and beyond it. It is here that the notion of networks embedded in social capital assumes real significance. In network learning, the organisation is recognised as a 'learning community' (Koffman and Senge, 1993, Richardson, 1995) or learning system (Nevis, DiBella, Gould, 1995) where the learning provides the flexibility needed (Kanter, 1989) to bridge various groups internally or externally, vertically and horizontally. In the traditional bureaucratic setting learning tends to be mostly vertical but the concept of a learning organisation introduces a new dimension of learning which crosses these boundaries. Addleson (1999) stressed that this 'boundaryless organisation' will promote co-operation and that success is dependent on how well people in the organisation transcend these boundaries. In this sense, the boundaries of an organisation are people's perceptions of relationships within or between an organisation and other entities (partners or stakeholders) for whom shared learning is necessary to advance an organisation's mission.

In the case of MIRB, the development of teams as part of the learning process differs from the autonomous team in quadrant four identified by Cressey and Kelleher, (1999). The bureaucratic features that still persist in MIRB may not be able to facilitate the ideal self-designing team or the self-directed work team allowing full autonomy. There are at least three types of teams that can be identified in MIRB:

- Permanent teams
- Semi-permanent teams
- Ad-hoc teams

The permanent teams are based on the functions of the various divisions, which constitute the basic set up of the organisation as explained in chapter 2. The permanent teams at the top level of the organisation will be close to Cressey and

Kelleher's model of a self-designing team. This is because top management in a bureaucracy has more power to make decisions at that level. In MIRB, the Board of Directors itself and other teams such as the Personnel or Examination Committee are higher level teams that retain near full autonomy.

On the other hand, the semi-permanent teams in MIRB are groups organised at higher levels of the organisation with members recruited from various units and divisions to address the on-going problems of the organisation. Recruitment is based on the expertise needed and position within the hierarchy. Due to the more senior position of the members, the group tends to have partial autonomy because they are already at the level of making significant decisions. Their position also enables them to reach the top levels of management thus giving this type of team more control over their 'production' process.

Generally, the *ad-hoc* teams are created by the upper management to address specific problems. Their tasks are specifically outlined while the design of the team and how it should operate is left to the team leader. The team tends to dissolve as soon as its mission is accomplished. MIRB also have *ad-hoc* teams created at any time within the units or division of the organisation for specific purpose.

Applying the grid presented by Cressey and Keheller to describe the type of teams that exist in MIRB, we can conclude that most teams in MIRB would fall into quadrant one to three depending on the position of the members in the organisation. The self-designing teams with greater power and function would only exist in MIRB at the highest level. It is not surprising that in a bureaucratic organisation, the teams that have more autonomy tend to be drawn from the upper strata of the organisation and consequently their learning does not represent the general mechanism for learning in the organisation.

4.5 Human Nature, Intelligence and Motivation

The focus on teams does not preclude the discussion of the infrastructure of the organisation. The capabilities of organisations to learn, create and share knowledge derive from a range of factors, which includes the availability of facilities to create and transfer tacit knowledge (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995), the structure, co-ordination and communication in the organisation (Conner and Prahalad, 1996) and the nature of organisations as social communities (Kogut and Zander; 1992, 1996).

Kanter (1989) argued that where learning is primarily undertaken through teams in an organisation, flexibility is necessary, job definitions need to be broader, team skills are necessary, and employees need to be able to bridge functions and departments. Flexibility in role and function is also necessary since learning may well breakdown existing pre-defined roles and generate new ones (Zuboff, 1988).

McHugh, Groves and Alker (1998), emphasised that, what is missing in learning organisations is that management does not pay attention to employee behaviour and experience of learning in both formal and informal systems. Emphasis on informal learning is crucial if both individuals and organisations have tacit dimensions to their learning. Here again, as individuals begin to learn about the tacit dimensions to an organisation they are likely to make mistakes or even challenge tacit assumptions in important ways, which may be a spur to productive change. In these cases what is crucial in tacit and informal learning is the foundation of trust in the organisation to allow workers to make mistakes and challenge unspoken assumptions.

Trust relations among peers and colleagues in organisations will, therefore, initiate learning and reduce opportunistic behaviours. A trusting environment will enhance learning because peers and colleagues share their knowledge in solving their work problems and this further reduces asymmetry of knowledge among individuals and divisions in organisations.

4.6 Power, Control and Co-ordination

The structure of an organisation is an important feature that gives the organisation its form. In contrast to the bureaucratic form of organisation which is hierarchical, learning organisations call for a flatter and flexible structure with minimum levels of management (Senge, 1990) and in principle devolved power. In this research, the concern would be how the devolution of power would enhance learning in an organisation like MIRB.

We recall from Chapter 3, that power as Weber defined it is a legitimate authority or what he called imperative control. In a bureaucratic organisation, as we have discussed the imperative control is a means of surveillance. In an organisation which is hierarchical and bureaucratic in nature, the creation of a learning organisation would require sharing power and transformational learning (Dovey, 1997). Coopey (1995) has pointed out that the learning organisation literature has not addressed the process of power transformation down the organisation, nor the issue of how power is to be shared. Sharing of power is a very delicate issue and especially so in government agencies. Dovey (1997) acknowledged that the failure of many organisations in achieving the ideals of best practice seems to be rooted in their inability/reluctance to transform power relations. As a consequence of their reluctance to share power and thus concede competitive advantage over others within the organisation, leaders usually attempt piecemeal and ad-hoc

'transformation' of their organisation's culture. The reality of this fact can be seen in the case where at lower levels (shop floor) attempts are made, frequently to change the organisation to one based on teams, while at higher levels in the organisation a control-focused culture is maintained. As a result of such changes or inconsistent policy, organisations become highly confused and stressed, especially at the first and second line management levels.

The learning organisation is not a comfortable place for its leaders, because much of the power resides at the edge of the organisation. In this culture, imposed authority does not work. Authority must be earned from those over whom it is exercised. The learning organisation is held together by shared beliefs and values, by people who are committed to each other and to common goals, a rather tenuous method of control. Therefore again, the role of trust as the basis of relationship in the organisation becomes the crux of the matter.

However, how power devolution is managed in an organisation would have a lot to do with the cultural background of the organisation. Schein (1996), in his study of the Economic Development Board (EDB) of Singapore suggested that the many Western conceptions of power, authority, and the role of hierarchy in systems of governance need to be re-examined. His question was "how can a leader be an autocrat yet make people empowered, and how can subordinates be both autonomous and subservient?" The EDB case indicates that the cultural way of thinking and acting in Singapore facilitates the appropriate power relationships in the organisation. The EDB has been successful in reconciling tensions and contradictions because of wider cultural influences. The EDB is a proof that while hierarchy is maintained in organisations, it is still possible to have flexibility of role throughout the organisation because senior members of the EDB will on particular

projects act in a subordinating role. Clearly the EDB may be relevant to MIRB in handling this key issue of how power is devolved in a hierarchical culture.

4.7 Management–Employee Relationships

There are two main aspects of management-employee relationships in learning organisations which we have focussed on in this research, one is trust which is at the core of the relationship and the other is effective communication at all levels in the organisation which we considered crucial. The issue of trust in learning organisations has been discussed in the review of social capital theory, therefore this section becomes an extension of the discussion of this relationship.

In Human Resource Development (HRD), emphasis is given to Employee Development (ED) as a way of moving towards a broader view of human development in the workplace. ED refers to the support given by employers to their employees in order to undertake a variety of learning opportunities. ED is also said to be a positive contribution towards developing a learning culture in the workplace (Forrester *et al*, 1995). Variables such as trust, learning culture, team learning and power devolution have implications for the relationship of both the management and employees. All these variables need to be managed carefully and hence once again the role of leaders in learning organisations is important as they are in the prime position to initiate change.

Honey and Mumford (1991, 1996,) examined the roles of managers in creating a learning environment. The four roles they identified are; role model, provider, system builder and champion. By role model, a manager is expected to demonstrate personal enthusiasm for learning and as a provider, he/she is generous in providing learning opportunities for others. The leader is also expected to be a system builder

who incorporates learning with normal work processes and to be a champion implies that he/she is aware of the need to encourage learning throughout the organisation.

In a learning organisation, the leader's role differs dramatically from that of the charismatic decision-maker. Leaders are designers, teachers, and stewards. These roles require new skills: the ability to build shared visions, to bring to the surface and challenge prevailing assumptions, and to foster more systemic patterns of thinking. In short, leaders in learning organisations are responsible for building organisations where people are continually expanding their capabilities to shape their future, that is leaders are responsible for learning (Senge, 1990).

The culture of the organisation too has significant bearing on the relationship of people in the organisation. Hofstede (1997) stated that 'culture is the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the member of one group from another through "the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influences a human response to its environment (p.5)."' He identified the organisational culture as consisting of four elements; symbols, rituals, heroes and values. While the first three are the most obvious or tangible aspects of the organisation culture, values represent the unseen aspect of culture and can only be inferred from people's (members of the organisation) behaviour. While it is not easily perceived, values are vital as they form the heart of the culture. Values influence thoughts, feelings and actions and how people work with others, including the desire to learn. It is therefore, vital to understand the interaction between both culture and learning, and hence identify the elements of a culture that would facilitate learning in an organisation. So far we have looked at the key concepts which can generate the infrastructure for a learning organisation and raise the germane issue and problems of transformations to a learning culture. We should

now look more specifically at a major theoretical problem posed in seeking such a transformation.

4.8 Theoretical and Practical Barriers in Creating a Learning Organisation

4.8.1 *Transaction Cost Theory*

Oliver Williamson (1975) established the study of transaction costs as one of the fundamental elements of the economic theory of organisations, although the idea was in place 40 years earlier (Coase, 1937, 1960). In Williamson's study of *Market and Hierarchies*, the central issue is to identify the limits of the firm and in particular to understand inefficient managerial activity. Williamson has applied the transaction cost approach to the study of organisation at three levels of analysis. The first is the overall structure of the enterprise. This takes the scope of the enterprise as given and asks how the operating parts should be related to one another. The second or middle level focuses on the operating parts and asks which activities should be performed within the firm, which outside it, and why. This can be thought of as developing the criteria for and defining the "efficient boundaries" of an operating unit. The third level of analysis is concerned with the manner in which human assets are organised; the object here is to match internal governance structures with the attributes of workers in a discriminating way.

The third level of analysis is more related to this research because it raises contributing factor to the barriers of learning in organisations. The basis of Williamson's (1975, 1981) transaction cost approach to the study of organisations, views human behaviour as opportunistic and also subject to bounded rationality. He sees 'man' as behaving rationally in the sense of calculatedly maximising personal

utility but is constrained by limited cognitive abilities. The opportunistic behaviour of 'man' as described by Williamson entails self-interest seeking with guile. Opportunism will result in people who will hold information to themselves for the benefit of their own career path. Williamson identified four types of guile: specifically agents can be selective in information disclosure and can even distort information or they can try to mislead, disguised or obfuscate and confuse (Williamson, 1986). Such behaviour obstructs the flow of knowledge in an organisation and disrupts the communication network causing information rigidity.

Following Williamson's lead Farnham and Horton (1996), suggested that recent initiatives to reform the British Civil Service is an attempt to install the techniques and behaviours of the private sector characterised by market driven goals. Williamson's analysis is an important reminder that trusts and teamwork will not be created until the goals of individuals are aligned with those of organisations.

While it can be argued that Williamson's view is Eurocentric at best, there are Western commentators who would challenge Williamson's view, for example Lane (1991). Lane rejected the concept of institutional rationality in the analysis of market behaviour, because he considered it a misleading ideal and not descriptive of actual market, or any other, behaviour. In fact Lane argued that, people would tend to learn less if they adopt rationalistic approaches because they will misunderstand the learning process. He argued that, a sense of personal development and progress that contributes to satisfaction in one's life is crucial to workplace performance and learning. Lane's argument is important as he challenged the dominant Neo-Classical economics view, which holds to the belief that income is the primary source of human satisfaction (utility). In contrast to Williamson, he saw personal development, self-esteem and intrinsic rewards as the motivating factors, which drive individuals to learn in the workplace. Learning therefore should serve both

individual and collective interests. While his criticisms raise fundamental questions about human motivation in paid work, there are also wider issues concerning national business cultures.

Trompenaars and Turner (1993) observed that the value structures of the cultures in East Asia appear to be different from Western societies on a number of dimensions that impact on organisational management and change. They showed how differentiation in cultural orientation lead to differences in various ethnic groups' perception and orientation to work. One consequence of their findings is that in building a learning organisation, models or ideals from the West may be borrowed but not duplicated. Their study categorised the Malaysian organisational culture as falling under the 'Eiffel Tower' culture which is "steep, symmetrical, narrow at the top and broad at the base, stable, rigid and robust" (Trompenaars and Turner, 1993; 166). This suggests that any notion of a learning organisation in Malaysia will have to factor in the predominantly hierarchical structure of Malaysian culture.

Learning in such a culture means accumulating the necessary skills to fit a role and to qualify for higher positions. In such a culture people are treated like capital and cash resources and they can be planned, scheduled, deployed and reshuffled by skill sets like any other physical entity (Trompenaars and Turner, 1993; 170).

However, because people are treated like any other economic resource, this tends to allow flexibility and mobility of human resources where people can be moved from one division to another at great ease for the benefit of the organisation. However, such a view may not produce reflexive autonomous learners. But, perhaps the greatest challenge for the 'Eiffel Tower' culture organisation is to match the individual goals of learning with the collective interest. Again, Lane's argument that people are motivated by personal development can be problematic because in this culture monetary gains are attached to rank regardless of whether they learn or not,

their position guarantees them the reward. Opportunism (Williamson, 1975) is likely to be present because people will learn and hoard knowledge for their benefit to secure a better position and rank in the organisation.

The view of distinctive organisational cultures developed by Trompenaars and Turner, in one sense gets over the problem posed by Williamson or at least provides a cultural context for his analysis, but at the cost of presenting another problem, which is whether the kind of culture reported by them can be sufficiently adapted to develop a learning organisation. Hallinger, (1998) contrasted Asian culture and practices with the individualism which is inherent in Western culture. Although he suggested that individualism is excellent in stimulating invention and innovation at the grass-roots level he recognised that a high degree of individualism will be unable to help organisations adapt to massive and rapid changes. As a result Western organisations are looking for ways to create contexts that support the learning of individuals and organisation.

From a cultural perspective, there are tensions in moving towards a learning organisation implicit in both 'Eastern' and 'Western' cultures. Tension between bureaucracy and learning organisations arises because of the contrasting nature of the two forms of organisation. The rigidity of bureaucracy as outlined in chapter three clearly shows that many of the features in a bureaucratic organisation impede learning. In examining the prospect for MIRB becoming a learning organisation there are two overarching tensions. The first concerns issues of culture and the second bureaucracy.

4.9 The Nature of Knowledge in Relation to Learning in A Learning Organisation

One of the important roles of learning in organisations is the generation of knowledge to enable innovation. Davenport and Prusak (1998) offer a working definition of knowledge:

Knowledge is a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the mind of knowers. In organisations, it often becomes embedded not only in documents or repositories but also in organisational routines, processes, practices, and norms (1998: 5).

They also identify the key components of knowledge, which include experience, truth, judgement, and rules of thumb. Knowledge develops through time, through experience from formal or informal learning. Experience provides a historical perspective from which to view and understand new situations and events. Organisational history or memory is needed to ensure that the same mistakes are not repeated. Knowledge contains judgement in the sense that it can judge new situations and information in light of what is already known, it judges and refines itself in response to new situations and information. Rule of thumb refers to intuition that develops through trial and error and over long experience and observation. The employees with knowledge can see patterns in new situations and can respond appropriately (Davenport and Prusak, 1998).

According to Argyris, "learning" is correcting errors (including surprises and wrong predictions). One corrects them by adjusting the data or revising the cognitive structures that produce the failed expectations. Knowledge, produced through learning, flows through organisations to become output, usually combined with physical product, and it is a part of every process. Knowledge, therefore, makes up a

significant part of the fabric of the organisation. Most organisations are involved with single loop learning (Argyris, 1995) or adaptive learning (Senge, 1990) which focuses on solving problems in the present without examining the suitability of current learning behaviours. In learning organisations, it is double loop learning (Argyris, 1995) or generative learning (Senge, 1990) that is more crucial because it involves continuous experimentation and feedback on the way organisations go about defining and solving problems. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), in *The Knowledge Creating Company* have developed a theory of the successful Japanese company that centres on the processes of creating knowledge, especially new product ideas and designs. The key to their view is that learning is inherent throughout the company and is every member's responsibility.

Clearly in contrast to bureaucratic types of learning, the learning in learning organisations is one of adapting to and responding to novel situations. In the theory of situated learning proposed by Lave and Wenger (1991), learning is located in sociocultural practices of a community. The concept of situated learning is extended further than the conventional concept of learning by doing. This process of situated learning is known as the legitimate peripheral participation, which is defined as:

Legitimate peripheral participation provides a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old timers, and about activities, identities, artifacts, and communities of practice. It concerns the process by which newcomers become part of a community of practice (1991: p.29).

The significance of their theory is that they have shifted the focus from the individual as learners to learning as team or group participation in the social world. In this case, learning can be seen as a function of the history and culture of the organisation. Knowledge as understood within this perspective is "socially constituted world is socially mediated and open ended (p.51)." In a professional bureaucracy like MIRB, where learning is based on precedents and embedded in the

institutional memory, the choice relates to what extent the organisation is willing to entrust learning to teams rather than delivering the top-down approach of learning typical in a bureaucracy. The interactions of the tax officers socially in their everyday life can also be seen as part of their learning process and transferring of knowledge. Crucially, it is through these interactions that standards of judgement in relation to the 'grey areas' in novel cases can be developed. Such a process not only spreads learning but also would create a much more rapid response than waiting for judgements from senior management. Indeed, this form of learning would be more effective if it leads towards a dialogue between tax officers and senior management.

4.10 Summary

Often, scholars writing about learning organisations are practitioners in the field of management and as such the concept of a learning organisation lack a sound theoretical foundation. The literature prescribes the elements that must be contained in order to build a learning organisation without carefully considering the organisational foundations roots and cultural aspects, which may be difficult to change.

The characteristics (table 4.1) of the two ideal types of organisation represent polar opposites. Since it is a matter of degree, so the question is to what degree MIRB can move towards the ideal type of a learning organisation. The ability to manage the tensions in the contrasting features of both types of organisations is central to building learning into the organisation. Addressing the barriers to creating a learning organisation will be crucial in managing these tensions. In turn this poses a further set of issues. First, at the macro level, is whether a learning organisation in Malaysia may be different from one in the UK, (for example) because the business

cultures in the two countries are different? The second concerns the extent to which the learning culture of one organisation can be adopted by another.

Table 4.1: Characteristics of Bureaucracy and Learning Organisation

<i>Bureaucracy</i>	<i>Learning Organisation</i>
<i>Knowledge and Learning</i>	
Knowledge is densely concentrated on the top of the hierarchy	Knowledge is widely disseminated in the organisation
Individual learning	Team learning
Knowledge flow from top to bottom and between peers and colleagues	Knowledge flows in network regardless of ranks and positions
<i>Human Nature, Intelligence and Motivation</i>	
Impersonality ensures no favouritism and impartiality	Recognises the need of personal relationship in organisation and with customers
Emphasis on individual expertise	Focus on collective intelligence
Employees are assumed to be rational individuals.	Recognises the 'irrationality' and emotions of individuals
Workers are motivated by extrinsic rewards.	Workers are not solely motivated by extrinsic rewards but also intrinsic rewards
<i>Power, Control and Co-ordination</i>	
Systematic division of labour	Individual initiative in defining task
Power resides in office(position) and the individuals	Power resides in expertise
Hierarchical structure	Flatter structure
Power resides in a formal hierarchy or a particular position	Power is shared with the workforce
<i>Management – Employee Relationship</i>	
Low trust relationship	High trust relationship
Vertical and formal communication	Open, flexible and informal communication
Management commitment through clearly define rules and procedures	Use of interpersonal skill to motivate staff

The issue here is whether as Kay (1996) suggests each organisation is unique. If this is the case then, instead of being able to develop a general theory of government learning organisations this research would provide a case study example from which others might learn. However, the learning may be confined to organisations within the same culture, if Trompenaars and Turner are correct, or may extend beyond national or ethnic boundaries if they are not.

The gap in the literatures on learning organisations represents an opportunity, which can result in deeper insights and better understanding of the phenomenon. Subsequently, the review of relevant literatures in Chapter 3 and 4 leads to the next stage, which is the empirical aspect of the research. This involves addressing two general questions. They are:

1. To what extent is MIRB now a learning organisation?
2. What are the barriers to learning at the present time?

These questions can be addressed by using the key modalities identified in Table 4.1 as guides to the analysis. In answering these questions insights may be gained into the complex issues of how MIRB may become more of a learning organisation.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 represents the plan and strategy adopted in achieving the goals and objectives of the research. This research is a single case study using multiple methods of empirical investigation. This case study combines both quantitative and qualitative approaches in collecting the data. The qualitative study is used to elaborate upon the quantitative data in greater depth and also as a means of triangulating the data through different methods.

The methods, process and procedures of data collection will be detailed to provide a clear understanding of why such methods were chosen and their advantages and disadvantages are explained. How the data were analysed is also covered in this chapter. Finally, the researcher's unique position and view in conducting this research is disclosed. This chapter begins with a summary of the key empirical questions the study attempts to address.

5.2 The Key Empirical Questions

The research questions arise from the initial analysis of the problems identified from the literature review. They are as follows:

- i. What organisational foundations for learning are required?
- ii. What are the barriers to learning in the organisation?
- iii. How can the career structure and incentives of staff relate to learning?
- iv. How can individuals in the organisation be encouraged to learn?

In answering the above research questions the empirical work had to be designed in an appropriate way by using the appropriate methods of collecting the data and then analysing it. However, as the research progressed, broader issues surfaced and had to be taken into consideration. Understanding learning in organisations is a complex matter as it involves people's behaviour and attitudes, inter-relationships within and in the organisation and hence it is important to "probe deeply and analyse intensively multifarious phenomena" (Cohen and Manion, 1994: 125) in the organisation.

5.3 Research Design

Looking at the key empirical questions outlined above, the study thus required a research design that is compatible with its objectives. There are several ways of doing research but the five major strategies are; experiment, survey, histories, archival analysis and case studies. The choice of strategy depends on three conditions; (a) the type of research questions posed, (b) the control a researcher has over actual behavioural events, (c) the focus on contemporary phenomena as opposed to historical (Yin, 1994).

Yin (1994) has distinguished between three types of case study research: exploratory which investigates a vague problem or new issue, descriptive which seeks to define accurately a situation or issue which explains the causality between different observations. In this research, the investigation of the foundations required for learning and the barriers to learning are exploratory in nature.

5.3.1 Case Study Research

Case study researchers typically observe the characteristics of an individual, a group, an organisation or a community. Here, the case study approach has been adopted not only because of the type of questions posed that match its suitability but it fits into the general objective of trying to develop a deep and full understanding of the complexity of the organisation being studied. The purpose is to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the diverse phenomenon (Bogdan and Sari Knop, 1992) of learning in MIRB. Bell (1993) has highlighted the great strength of the case study is that “it allows the researcher to concentrate on specific instances or situations and to identify, or attempt to identify, the various interactive processes at work (p.8).”

It seems that, the case study is a widely used research design, yet there is very little consensus as to what the term actually means. What constitutes a case study has changed over time and varies between social science disciplines and the researchers themselves (Burton, 2000). Yin (1993) argued that, the case study is an empirical enquiry, which investigates contemporary phenomenon in real life contexts, where the boundaries are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used. In this study, MIRB is taken as a single case with numerous levels of analysis in the design (Yin, 1993).

(a) *Advantages of the case study method*

Since case studies are diverse in design it makes it difficult to summarise their key strengths and weaknesses. Although, the flexibility it offers is attractive, it would be wrong to assume that it is an easy design to work with. Yin (1994: 55) emphasised

that case study “demands on a person’s intellect, ego, and emotions are far greater than those of any other research strategy.”

Punch (1998) took a stand that, if carefully conducted, in situations where “knowledge is shallow, fragmentary, incomplete or non-existent”, case studies, have valuable contributions to make. First, the approach allows us to study a particular case, in its own right. The case being studied might be unusual, unique or not yet understood, so that building an in-depth understanding of the case is valuable. Second, only the in-depth case study can provide the important aspects of a new or persistently problematic research area. This is particularly true when complex social behaviour is involved, as in much social research. Discovering the important features, developing an understanding of them, and conceptualising them for further study often can only be achieved through case studies. Third, the case study can make an important contribution in combination with other research approaches. For example, a survey could be followed by, or done in conjunction with, one or more case studies. The survey on its own has its limitations therefore the case study can ‘flesh out’ the picture in a way that is crucial to our understanding. It can illuminate similar cases, as for example in this study the analysis of MIRB may be of relevance to other government agencies.

(b) Disadvantages of the Case Study Method

On the other hand, the frequent complaint against case studies is that the lack of rigour and the sloppiness of researchers would allow “equivocal evidence” or biased views, which will influence the direction of the findings and conclusions. However, such flaws can also occur in other research strategies (Yin, 1994). Another issue of concern regarding case studies is the questions of generalisability. Typically, it is

difficult to generalise from a single case. Hence, Yin (1994; 10) noted that, 'case studies, like experiments, are generalisable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes.' Bryman (1989) highlighted that in the 1960's the decline and loss of faith in using case studies in organisational research was due to the prevailing view that it was not possible to generalise the results of the research. Thus the problem of generalisation to populations is often perceived as the major drawback.

Burton (2000) explained the difficulties arising in the case study. First, the data collection procedure in case studies is usually not highly structured like in surveys and therefore methods such as interviews require questioning and listening skills. The researcher also needs to be adaptive, flexible and have a good grasp of the issues to maintain appropriate focus. Second, interviewing high profile people in organisations requires a great deal of preparation on the part of the researcher, and also the confidence in interviewing people of higher status and level than oneself. Third, a high degree of expertise is required when a wide range of methods is utilised. The interaction between the theoretical issues and the data collected also has to be constantly monitored. And finally; how the case study data is presented is crucial, and consideration of which data is to be given prominence and how it all interacts together needs to be considered carefully, demanding a holistic understanding of complexity.

In this research, we may not be able to generalise from one case study but the fact that it can be illuminative provided good grounds for undertaking it. In many ways government agencies share similar traits and problems. So this case study may raise further questions for reflection for other government agencies rather than providing an immediate practical solution as to how they may become learning organisations.

The keen interest of most government organisations in implementing 'new' management concepts available in the private sector could make this case study research a worthy lesson to be learnt.

5.3.2 *The Quantitative and Qualitative Dichotomy*

Yin (1994) stated that the evidence for case studies can come from six sources: documents, archival records, interview, direct observation, participant observation and physical artifacts. Although, the concept of case study is frequently associated with qualitative research and these two concepts (qualitative and case study) are often used interchangeably (Burgess, 1991), this case study has used a combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches in gathering the data. The two approaches are not mutually exclusive and both have their own strengths and weaknesses, where their suitability will depend on the context of the research.

In this context, there have been arguments as to whether case studies need to be purely qualitative or whether it is legitimate to use both quantitative and qualitative research techniques (Burton, 2000). When analysing insights or views or attitudes, quantitative work is extremely limited. The quantitative data can only tell us in very broad terms that people do or do not like their work *et Cetera*, it can throw up broad data patterns for investigation but it cannot start to explain what is behind the responses given. This can only be understood by identifying how a view expressed in response to a questionnaire item fits into a person's broader world view, including their priorities, values and ambitions. The qualitative data can be used as a basis of tentative explanations of quantitative data patterns, including puzzles or tensions in quantitative data and in particular the identification of explanatory mechanisms for

recurring quantitative data patterns. Burton (2000) clarified how both approaches can complement¹ each other;

Qualitative approaches can assist quantitative work in a number of ways: by providing hunches or hypotheses to be tested by quantitative research; as a mechanism for validating survey data; interpreting statistical relationship and deciphering puzzling responses; to help construct scales and indices for survey items; and offering case study illustrations (p. 298).

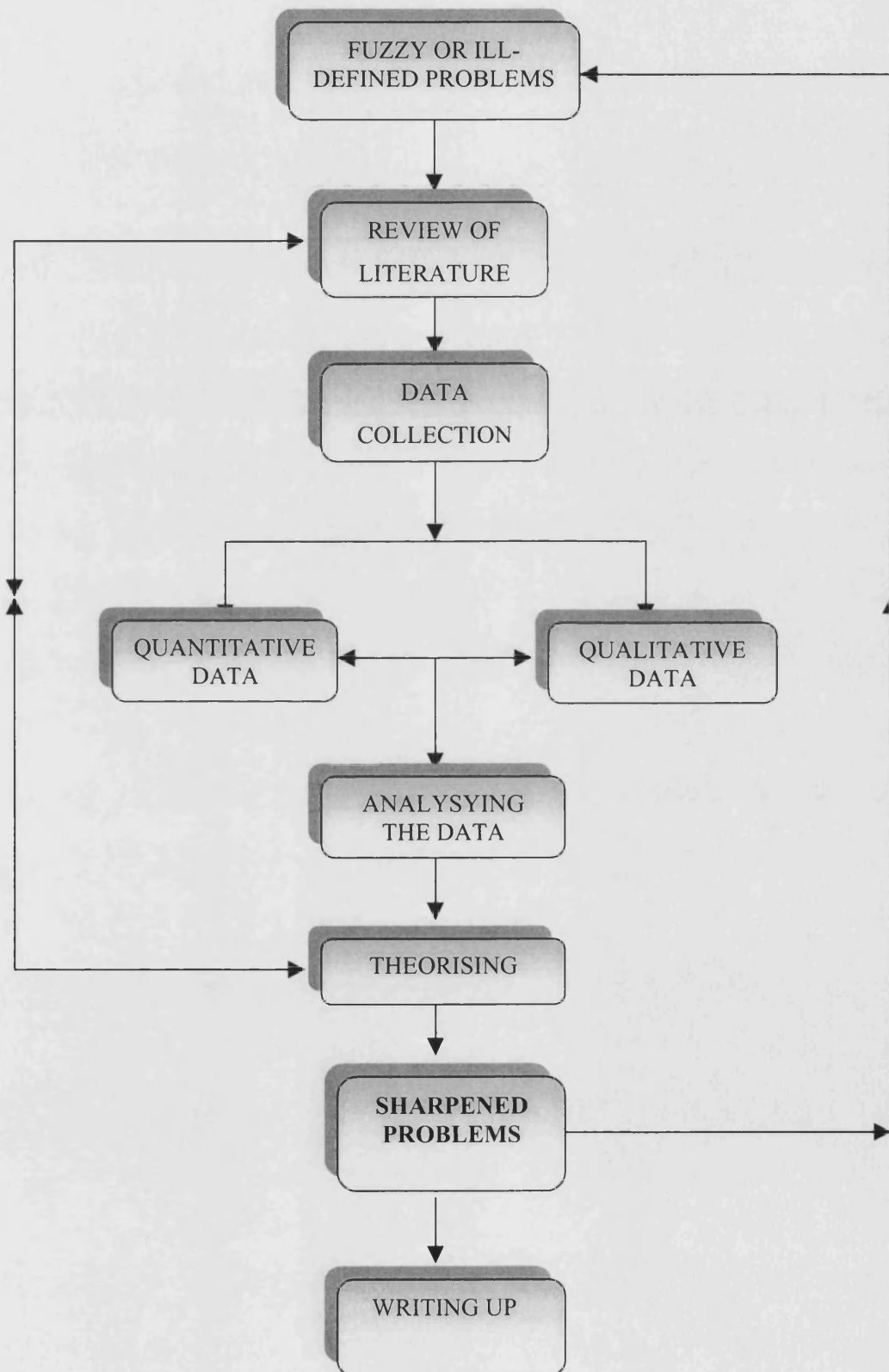
In this research, the qualitative elements represent the verbal descriptions and respondents' explanations of human behaviour through interviews, observation, and document analysis. Here, the concern is on detailed descriptions in understanding how the participant explains his/her own world-view. At the macro level, the focus is on the organisation as a whole while at micro level, the focus is on individual behaviours and opinions on certain issues in relation to the wider organisation. The questions posed in the survey are repeated in the interviews to cross-examine and link responses.

5.3.3 *The Research Process*

The process (as in figure 5.1) began with vague or fuzzy problems (Haig, 1995) about the organisation which needed to be addressed. Having diagnosed the problem in a general sense and reviewed the literature, the plan was to collect data based on hypotheses generated from the theories contained in the literature.

¹ There is a considerable debate over the relative merits of both techniques but in social science research both approaches have their own significance. The debate between quantitative and qualitative methods and their validity is still an on going issue (Burgess, 1991; Bryman, 1992; Cohen and Manion, 1994). Combining the two approaches have been supported by several writers (Brewer and Hunter, 1989; Bryman, 1992; Creswell, 1994; and Miles and Huberman, 1984). It is in fact a form of triangulating, where multiple methods (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994) are used.

The review of the literature has helped the researcher widen her perspective and thus enabled her to develop relevant concepts and constructs to be tested in the empirical work. Through the quantitative work data patterns were established and further explored through the interviews, observations and documentary analysis. From this analysis of data, explanatory theories were developed within the context of the research. The theories discussed were about the limits and possibilities of MIRB approximating to a learning organisation. As a result of this process, the problems became sharper and the whole process could be reiterated to clarify the problems and provide explanations for them. However, due to time and financial constraints the research only performed one round of the process as indicated in figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: THE RESEARCH PROCESS

5.4 Methods of Data Collection

Cohen and Manion (1994: 269) indicated that: “triangulation may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour.” Fielding and Fielding (1986) although in support of using a multiple methods approach, warned that the use of multiple methods is not an absolute guarantee of validity of the findings as it can also increase the chances of error. This issue is relevant when using various methods give different results. However, the choice of methods depends largely on the research questions. The issue considered is to what extent is the method appropriate in answering these questions.

The methods or instruments used in this research include:

- Questionnaires
- Interviews
- Observations
- Document analysis

5.4.1 Questionnaires

The purpose of the questionnaires was to examine the issues discussed in Chapter 3 and 4, in order to develop general data patterns to be explained by quantitative research. It was also hoped that by using the questionnaires, a degree of validity and reliability would be achieved in terms of general data patterns. As explained in Chapter 2, MIRB is a large far flung organisation and the researcher needed to be sure that the views expressed in one part of the organisation were shared across it. The final draft of the questionnaires was derived from various sources:

- From the literature review, where some tentative categories were developed in the initial stage of the study.
- Discussion with supervisors, colleagues in MIRB and from the researcher's own experience working with MIRB and other government agencies.
- From the initial piloted questionnaires distributed to 10 tax officers and also discussion with them on the clarity of the questions.

The questionnaires consisted of five sections with 54 statements/items and at the end of each section respondents were given the opportunity to add any opinions pertaining (open-ended questions) to the related issues. The background information of the respondents was finally asked for at the end of the questionnaires. The five sections of the questionnaires were:

Section A: There are three parts in this section. The first set of questions is related to the importance of formal and informal training, while the second part combines questions dealing with training and rewards and the communication process in the organisation. Finally, respondents were asked about motivation factors in MIRB.

Section B: There are four parts in this section. The first part attempted to seek opinions of how respondents viewed knowledge and team learning in MIRB and how important learning was to their career development. In the second part, again the respondents were asked how they viewed the importance of knowledge and team learning at the group or team level. The third part of the section attempted to elicit how tax officers perceived their counterparts in the private sector and finally their sources of learning were asked about.

Section C: This section intended to measure the level of trust in the organisation.

Section D: This section attempted to seek the opinions of respondents as to what extent power in decision making and general matters is shared in MIRB.

Section E: Here, respondents were asked about their opinions of learning at the organisational level.

(a) Attitude Scale

There are a number of attitude measuring scales, for example, Paired Comparison, Social Distance, Guttman, Thurstone and Likert Scales. The Likert Scales was used in this study as it has been proven to be the best method in analysing attitude and also known for its reliability (Oppenheim, 1992). Oppenheim (1992), stressed that the Likert Scales is primarily concerned with uni-dimensionally, that is ensuring all items elicit the same *continua* of attitudes. The respondents were asked to choose the most appropriate answer and a score was assigned to each answer as below:

- | | | |
|---------------------|---|---------|
| ▪ Strongly Agree | = | Score 5 |
| ▪ Agree | = | Score 4 |
| ▪ Undecided | = | Score 3 |
| ▪ Disagree | = | Score 2 |
| ▪ Strongly Disagree | = | Score 1 |

(b) Selection of Samples

The samples were selected based on the following criteria: number of years working in the organisation, a representative proposition of both genders, samples across the various branches in Malaysia. The number of years working with MIRB was considered an important criterion to ensure that the sample consisted of a mix of both the 'new' and long serving officers. Officers who had served the organisation

more than 10 years were considered to be generally more experienced because most would have passed their advanced examinations. The gender balance in the sampling was taken into consideration because there is generally an imbalance in the distribution of genders in most divisions.

Table 5.1: Samples for the Questionnaire

Branch Office	No. of Questionnaires distributed	No. of responds	
		Male	Female
Alor Star	15	6	8
Peneng	20	10	10
Ipoh	15	4	7
Seremban	10	5	3
Raub	10	-	-
Johor Bahru	20	8	12
Company, Kuala Lumpur	20	8	12
Kpg. Attap, Kuala Lumpur	15	6	8
Cheras, Kuala Lumpur	15	2	8
Assessment, Kuala Lumpur	20	3	17
Kluang	10	6	4
Malacca	15	7	8
Kota Kinabalu	20	9	8
Collection, Kuala Lumpur	8	3	5
Investigation, Kuala Lumpur	5	4	1
TOTAL	218	81	111

The total population of tax officers (grade 7) in MIRB as at year 1999 is 1414 and 218 tax officers were selected out of the population. 218 sets of questionnaires (sample in Appendix I) were distributed to 15 branches of MIRB in East and West Malaysia. The general response was good as out of that, 192 people (88%) responded and completed the questionnaires.

The above sampling technique is known as stratified sampling where the population is segmented into homogenous groups with similar characteristics (Cohen and

Manion, 1994). The samples were then randomly selected from each of the stratified groups. The questionnaires were used to measure the characteristics and opinions of the respondents.

(c) Analysing the Data from Questionnaires

The raw data obtained from the questionnaires needed to be analysed. There are three ways (de Vaus, 1993) in which the data can be analysed:

- i. The number of variables being examined.
- ii. The level of measurement of the variables.
- iii. By descriptive or inferential statistics.

Depending on the number of variables, there are three possible techniques of analysing the data; univariate analysis, bivariate analysis and multivariate analysis. The level of measurement of the variables, whether the data is nominal, ordinal or interval has to be determined as this will impact on the analysis techniques selected. In this research the scale of measurement for the data is nominal and therefore a non-parametric test is the most appropriate tool for inferential statistics.

The computer software, SPSS programme (Version 8) was used as the statistical tool in this study. Both the descriptive statistics as well as the inferential statistics were used to make sense of the data. To begin with, frequencies were computed to check the accuracy of the input, and trace any error or omissions. Each statement or question in the questionnaire was analysed individually according to the categories developed; training, communication, motivation, knowledge development, collective learning, power devolution, trust and learning at the organisational level. The

descriptive statistics were used to describe the data in simple percentages and means.

In the next stage of the data analysis, the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test and t-test were performed on the data. These inferential statistics allowed us to make some statistical generalisations about the organisation as a whole. In the ANOVA test we tested the four independent variables, PScheme, AGE₁, POSITION and SERVICE₁ to identify if there were any significant differences between the various groups in their opinions on the issues asked. In the t-test, we tested the variable GENDER and BRANCH₁ against the questions asked to see if there is any significant difference between the groups in their opinions. The process of testing and defining of all the variables will be explained in greater detail in chapter 6². In this research the significance level used is 5 per cent level ($p=0.05$) as this is a conventional standard for social science research.

The open-ended questions were meant to give the respondents an opportunity to further explain and clarify any issues relevant to the questions. The open-ended questions also gave an indication of the issues that needed to be raised during the interviews. The results from the questionnaires gave an indication that there are certain issues, which needed further clarification and explanation. The survey data has not explained responses within respondents' wider world-views, hence, another instrument, the interview was used to validate and elaborate upon the information obtained from the survey data analysis. Interview evidence was selected for presentation to illuminate and elaborate the key issues regarding the categories, which framed this research.

² The logic of presenting the definitions of variables in Chapter 6, is to provide understanding between the meaning of the variables and the results presented.

5.4.2 Interviews

An interview involves gathering data through verbal interaction between individuals. Tuckman in Cohen and Manion (1994) described four ways interviews can be used in a research:

- i. As the major instrument of gathering data.
- ii. As a means of providing access as to what is in a person's mind.
- iii. They can be used to test hypotheses, suggest new ones or as an explanatory device in identifying variables and relationships.
- iv. They can be used in conjunction with other methods, or to validate methods, or to go deeper into motivations and reasons why respondents responded as they did.

In this research the choice for interviews is related to reasons ii, iii and iv above. The main purpose of the interviews here was to elicit information in order to understand the learning phenomenon in great depth and to cross-examine information obtained from the survey. Initially it was planned that the study would adopt two types of interview; a one-to-one in-depth interview and a group interview. The one-to-one interview gives the opportunity to explore an individual's opinion in great depth (Burton, 2000). The one-to-one interview was planned with the middle and top management while the group interviews were intended for the tax officers. The main reason for doing one-to-one interviews was to explore individuals' opinions in depth, while the focus group interviews was used to create a discussion or forum like situation. The group interview was also deemed appropriate in trying to save time and cost.

However, during the data collection process, it became apparent that the group interview was inappropriate because after three groups of tax officers were interviewed, it was clear that some were more aloof and not able to express themselves freely in the presence of their colleagues. Some of the questions posed during the interviews were related to sensitive issues in the organisation and therefore people were cautious in giving their opinions. As a result, the group interview was abandoned and the tax officers were interviewed individually.

The in-depth interview “is a conversation in which the researcher encourages the informant to relate, in their own terms, experiences, and attitudes that are relevant to the research problem” (Walker, 1985:4). It also provides “the opportunity for the researcher to probe deeply, to uncover new clues, to open up new dimensions of a problem and to secure vivid, accurate, inclusive accounts that are based on personal experience” (Burgess, 1994: 107).

Interviews are essential sources of case study information. The interview may take several forms. Most commonly, case study interviews are of an open-ended nature, in which respondents are asked about facts as well as opinions and events. However, in this research, the interview was semi-structured, to provide a framework for the researcher and also to guide the interviewees. Although it was structured, the question order actually changed frequently depending on the interviewee’s attitude and how much they were willing to tell. Probing questions also proved to be useful in circumstances where the interviewees were not so expressive and tended to be superficial. Further clarification from the interviewees was often required and they were free to elaborate their ideas.

Table 5.2: Summary of Interview

Category	No. of Interviewees	
	Male	Female
Senior Management	3	1
Middle Management	2	2
Assessment Officer	23	16
Total	28	19

Interviews were conducted with a total of 47 IRB officers (see table 5.2) and each session took half-hour to an hour, although some interviewees took more time. Samples of interview transcriptions are attached in Appendices III, IV, V and VI.

(a) How the Interviews Data were Analysed

Interviews were carried out both in the English and Malay languages depending on the preference of the interviewees. All the tape-recorded interviews were transcribed and from the transcriptions, the quotations used were grouped according to the themes developed at the end of Chapter 4. Quotations were chosen to summarise a general opinion that was held and where contrasting or contradictory opinions were held these were also included in the interest of balance. Quotations were selected if relevant to the themes developed in the framework of the research. The interview data were also analysed in conjunction with the open-ended questions from the questionnaire and the observation data.

5.4.3 Observation

Observation is a technique used to watch, describe, analyse and interpret what humans are doing. There are two types of observation: the participant and non-participant. In participant observation the researcher is allowed to be part of what is

going on and in non-participant observation the researcher remains aloof. I kept a fieldwork diary to record what I saw and heard. Following Miles and Huberman's (1984) suggestion, the field notes were expanded after the observation and reports were prepared. It becomes part of the researcher's data, which is included in the qualitative analysis (see Appendix VII). The purpose of the observation was to see how MIRB teams worked, learned and interacted with each other at the workplace. Observation in this research included observation of people, events and activities. There were three events observed during the data collection process:

- A group meeting at branch level.
- Audit activities – where a team of four officers was observed on two different occasions.
- Investigation and intelligence activities – a team of 29 investigation officers and the two most senior ranking officers in MIRB were observed during an investigation raid.

Table 5.3: List of Observation Events

	Date	Sample Observed	Activity	Place of Activity	Number of participants
Event I	29/10/98 (9.35-10am)	Assessment Officers	Meeting at Unit Level	Wangsa Maju Branch Office	12
Event II	24/11/98 (9am – 12am)	Assessment Officers	Audit Activities	Tax Payer business premise	4
Event III	24/11/98 (1pm-3pm)	Assessment Officers	Audit Activities	Company's Business Premise	4
Event IV	17/12/98 (8am-4.30pm)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Investigation Officers • Contract Officer (foreign) • Head of Investigation Branch • Deputy Director General 	Investigation and Raid	Public Listed Company's Office	29

(a) *Group Meeting*

The group meeting involved a group of technical officers at the branch level. The leader who is a junior officer leading an assessment unit of the organisation was conveying the outcome of a meeting with the group members. I was a non-participant observer who happened to be there for an appointment and the observation was not made known to the people there.

(b) *Audit Activities*

In the audit activities (Event II and III), the team observed was a small group of tax officers at two different events. A branch office, which was 65km away from the head office, was selected to see how teams in a local branch worked during audit activities. The team involved tax officers of different ages and seniority of service in the organisation. The focus during observation was on how the officers worked as a team, how learning occurred during each activity and the role of senior officers in coaching junior officers in auditing. In the first three events the nature of observation was direct in the sense that the researcher was with the same team from the beginning until the end of the activity.

(c) *Investigation*

In investigation activities (Event IV), my role was more of a participant observer. The aim was to work with them in the team and the process of eliciting data was done through their conversation with the clients, discussion among peers and superiors.

Although this method has been criticised as biased and lacking of objectivity (Stake, 1995), this was the best approach for this research as it allowed me to go beyond the surface of the organisation and to see how a MIRB's team really worked on the ground. Observation is an interesting means for collecting data, watching people tangled in a complex variety of inter-personal relationships, feuds and differing views all beneath the surface of team decision making. Therefore, the major advantage of observation is the directness of the approach (Robson, 1993). The directness of this method can be seen as a complementary tool to the other techniques, giving the researcher a 'real-life' perspective of a situation. Observation was a crucial aspect of the data gathering process, as few people are ready to admit to all their various agendas in their daily work in the organisation. During the observation period, the observer associated herself not only with the activities but also with the people in an informal and more relaxed environment.

There have been instances where senior officers and the junior tax officers exposed their true feelings of frustration, needs and desires in moments of candour about the organisation. This kind of data was obtained during informal interaction with them during the three months of data collection. My observation goes beyond the events listed in table 5.3. Moving around the organisation and social gatherings attended gave me a deeper understanding of the organisation's implicit culture and behaviours of individuals in the organisation. Gaining access to events or groups and being accepted as part of them enabled me to extend my understanding beyond those answers given in the questionnaires and during interviews.

However, observation is not a trouble free option for the researcher. The major problems related to participant-observation concern bias (Becker, 1968). For

example, the researcher is less able to work as an external observer, and could be a supporter of a certain group in the organisation. In addition, the researcher may not have sufficient time to take adequate notes of the event. However, the trade-offs between the opportunities and the problems of this type of research were minimised because of the experience I have with the organisation, my experience working with other government agencies and my current position as a postgraduate student in an academic environment. The opportunities to be an insider at one point and also as outsider at this juncture hopefully gave me a unique position from which to reduce my bias for or against the organisation.

5.4.4 *Document Analysis*

Documentary evidence is a supplementary form of information, which supports other methods. It can be a valuable source of information. The documents involved in this particular research are secondary sources, which derived from the organisation's historical records, annual reports, departmental rules and regulation, circulars, reports of events and seminars and other internal documents. In this study, the documents are used to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources. For example going through some of the departmental rules and regulation circulars would obviously portray some aspects of MIRB policy on certain issues and implicitly convey elements of the organisational culture. It also provides the historical development of MIRB from colonial days till the present time and some official statistics.

However, the amount of documentary evidence selected was influenced by the time available as it was not possible to analysis everything (Bell, 1993). The availability of

these documents for analysis also depended on the permission granted by the organisation.

5.5 Issues of Validity and Reliability

The procedure selected for collecting data has to be reliable and valid. Briggs (1986) defines the two concepts as:

“Reliability” refers to the probability that the repetition of the same procedures, either by the same researcher or by other investigator, will produce the same results. “Validity” refers to the accuracy of a given technique, that is, the extent to which the results conform to the characteristics of the phenomena in question (Briggs, 1986: 23).

Between the two, validity was seen to be more complex and it is expected to tell us whether an item measured or described did really tell us what it is supposed to measure or describe (Bell, 1993; Oppenheim, 1992). However there is no one way of interpreting an event as argued by Janesick (2000):

Validity in the quantitative arena has a set of technical microdefinitions, and the reader is most likely well aware of those. Validity in qualitative research has to do with description and how explanation fits the description. In other words, is the explanation credible? In addition, qualitative researcher do not claim that there is only way of interpretation of an event. There is no one “correct” interpretation (p.393).

In the next section I will outline how my research instruments were validated.

5.5.1 *Research Validity*

To test the validity and reliability of the instruments certain procedures were observed and followed:

- The questionnaire and interview schedules were revised by my supervisor and sent to colleagues in MIRB, asking for their opinions and suggestions.
- The questionnaires were piloted and the respondents were asked if the questions were understandable and clear.
- After piloting, the questionnaires were revised and changes were made where necessary.
- There was an adequate plan and preparation prior to each interview in line with the qualitative research guide emphasising clarity of questions, focussing on a single idea in one question, selecting the right word, making questions short where possible and asking questions in a logical sequence.
- Although, there was no piloting of the interview questions, the opinions of the interviewees were sought and their comments were taken to further improve the up coming interviews.
- The interviews were tape-recorded and some of the interviews were transcribed and further checked with the interviewees. However, due to time constraints, not each and every one of the interviewees could be re-contacted.
- For the observation, the researcher kept a diary each time an observation was made. Notes were taken during the fieldwork and the report was prepared immediately.

5.5.2 *Reliability of the Questionnaires*

The test of reliability for the questionnaires was done by performing the SPSS Reliability Analysis test for the 192 tax officers who participated in this study. The reliability between statements in 40 items using the Likert scale was analysed by computing the Cronbach Coefficient Alpha. The results of the item analysis showed that the Cronbach Alpha was 0.84 (see Appendix VIII). Pedhazur and Schmelkin

(1991) referring to Nunnally (1978) suggested that “reliabilities of .7 or higher will suffice (p.245).” Therefore in this study a Cronbach Alpha of .8 is an authoritative source to justify that the items in the questionnaires were reliable.

5.6 Issues of Access, Ethics and Reflexivity: Undertaking Research in the Context of Malaysian Organisation

While most studies of Inland Revenue organisations have concentrated on the core of the matter, which is taxation often the management of the tax organisation itself has been neglected in many ways especially in developing countries. In this study, the main focus has been on the tax organisation itself, which may look trivial in the eyes of the public economist, but it is a crucial focus to any tax administration in the world.

One of the challenging problems faced by researchers in doing research with tax organisations is getting access to the organisation. This problem is not only common to tax organisations but with most organisations due to suspicion about the aims of the researcher (Bryman, 1989). In fact, getting access to the people in MIRB was not as easy as the researcher thought. Although, the majority co-operated, some senior staff declined to be interviewed and even when interviews were agreed, some tended to be very superficial. The question of anonymity, the request from interviewees ‘do not quote me’, ‘this is just between these four walls’, provided an indication to the researcher, of just how sensitive the members of the organisation are to certain issues.

Most of the information on taxpayer’s files and other official documents are classified as confidential and they are not easily accessed. This is so with any government agency and especially so in MIRB where the secrecy of the taxpayers

information is strictly protected by the law. Permission from the CEO had to be obtained prior to the data collection process taking place and at all levels of the organisation permissions from the head of the branches/divisions/units was sought when interviews with the staff were requested.

The permission for observation was the most difficult because it involved the actual work of tax officers in the taxpayer's office on business premises. A detailed explanation of what the researcher was looking for during observation was given to the head of the division or branch. However, in most circumstances, full co-operation was granted although the process was tedious and time consuming for the researcher.

5.6.1 The Researcher's Specific World-View

Prior to my attachment to MIRB, I had served two other government agencies in Malaysia. MIRB as a government agency is unique in many ways. Comparative to some government agencies, I view MIRB employees not as typical bureaucracy cogs who are slow, indolent and usually criticised by the public as lazy. They are faithful doing voluminous work within an organisation, which has developed a very disciplined workforce largely committed to their work.

I was amazed with the way things worked at MIRB right from the day I first came to the organisation in 1991. There has been no specific research done on the organisational culture aspect of MIRB. Therefore, my preconceptions of MIRB were based on my six years experience working with the organisation and also my experience working with two other government agencies in Malaysia and interaction with several other government organisations.

Interestingly, the most distinct aspect of MIRB as compared to other government agencies was its organisational culture. The practice of formal communication and respect shown to senior officers was very conspicuous in this organisation. The first thing that I was taught when I first came to this organisation (1991), was how to address the superiors with designation and title, to stand up when a senior officer talked to you and to show your respect when communicating with him/her. Although, there are exceptions in cases where a member of staff is already in close acquaintance with a superior, at least with the majority employees of MIRB, these rules applied. I have even watched a situation where an officer was chided for not standing when a senior officer (Head of a Branch) talked to the person concerned. Although respecting the elderly is part of the Malay culture, I found that the practice in MIRB was overly formal, and thus inhibiting the free flow of communication. Over formalisation of relationships can be a great hindrance not only in communication but also to vertical learning.

My experience in many ways shaped my view and positions about MIRB, although as a researcher I accept that there is a degree of bias in any position. While in any research the issue of personal interpretative bias may creep in, I was helped by working in other two organisations prior to MIRB, which enabled me to make comparisons between various government agencies as a way of testing my preconceptions.

5.6.2 *Researching the Powerful*

The study will focus on the key personnel of the MIRB who are involved in policy making and the technical officers in the operational function of the organisation. The Chief Executive Officer and the senior management are the most important providers of information on the organisation's policy, vision and future planning in learning. The middle management and the front-line officers' learning potential was focused on in great depth as they are the backbone of the organisation in generating knowledge and continuous involvement in learning. Walford (1994) reminded us that interviewing the powerful can be problematic due to their position and their desire to answer questions according to their agenda. How this problem was overcome, to some extent will be described below.

Although theoretical interest is important in selecting a case, an organisation's willingness to allow the researcher to conduct the study is another vital issue. The initial contact with the organisation is one way to assess their willingness to co-operate in the proposed study. In the case of MIRB, although the CEO gave her full support, down the line there were various obstacles faced by the researcher. Although the majority of the respondents were very co-operative there were however people who were not willing to co-operate, very defensive or declined to be interviewed. In one instance I was taken aback by the rudeness of the interviewee who left the room during the group interview (to be discussed shortly) but the advantage was I gave deep thought to the flaws in my research instruments. The lessons and reflections after each incident enabled me to learn and adjust accordingly my strategy and weakness of my instruments during the fieldwork.

In the fieldwork, the researcher became close to the people who are knowledgeable and the key informants. The key informants provided invaluable information and access to different sources of information that would not have been normally available for the researcher. For example, during an interview with one of the senior management, knowing that I needed to have access to the investigation division he immediately arranged an observation case for me.

There were at least two senior management officers who implicitly expressed their unwillingness to be interviewed by giving excuses such as his/her assistant will be able to tell me everything I need to know. In cases where I got to interview the senior management, some of them clearly operated according to Walford descriptions, they tended to be discreet in their opinions and to present themselves in a good light. It is in such a situation that probing questions, winning their confidence and being tactful helped to shed light on the deeper meanings of what was being said. My experience tended to concur with Ball (1994:98) that 'interviews with the retired and 'out of office' were often more revealing, interesting and frank than those with incumbents.' In my case, interviews with those who were on the verge of retiring and those who have been with the organisation for more than 20 years were very open and frank in their opinions.

An interesting experience, which had helped me, was that the promotion round was under way while I was there. Parallel to my interview questions, which touched on the issue of compensation, rewards and promotion, interviewees tended to express their view on the process of promotion although it was not on my agenda. Some of the interviewees were my former colleagues and in expressing their side of the story,

outside interviews, there was a suggestion that they thought I should be on their side. This clearly tested my sense of objectivity.

Researching the powerful is also a test of perseverance! When interviews are being cancelled even after appointments are scheduled, interviews being dragged into the next day due to interviewees being called for unexpected meetings and many circumstances which were beyond the researcher's control. In preparing for the interview, I had to remember that the interviewees were of different ranks in the organisation and some were considerably senior to myself. Caution had to be considered during interviews as it is not just listening to what the respondents would like me to know but more crucially to understand the deeper meaning of respondent's intention which meant reading between the lines.

There are some peculiarities and difficulties in interviewing the top and senior officers in any civil service organisation and the same problems arise in MIRB. They are particularly careful in what they say in interviews and what is said may not be what I am looking for. However, my position as an employee having inside information on the organisation gave me the advantage of being able to read between the lines of what was being said. This position as insider/outsider is rather unique.

5.7 Summary

The research is a single case study of MIRB, which allowed the researcher to probe deeply into the events, problems and behaviours of people in the organisation. The research process focused on a combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. This chapter has set out the strategy of how the data for this research

was collected. The voluminous amount of data collected was then analysed using appropriate techniques. The results of the analysis will be discussed in chapters 6 and 7. The next chapter gives a presentation of the data from the questionnaire, which establishes general trends and pattern of tax officers' opinions relating to the phenomenon investigated.

CHAPTER 6: THE QUANTITATIVE DATA

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we will present the quantitative aspect of the empirical findings. The questionnaires produced both quantitative and written comments. The purpose of using questionnaires as an instrument of collecting data has been to seek patterns and trends exhibited by the members of the organisation. From the literature review in Chapters 3 and 4, we have developed the theoretical framework consisting of four categories of concepts that are germane to building a learning organisation. The four categories are: the role of knowledge and learning in the organisation; the perceptions of human nature, intelligence and motivation; the sharing of power; control and co-ordination and finally the issues of employees-management relationship. These categories are used as a framework for analysing the data presented in this chapter.

In the initial stage of the analysis, simple statistical tests were performed to analyse the raw data. Simple descriptive statistics such as frequencies and mean were used to analyse data patterns. The descriptive statistics although simple in nature give a clear presentation of the data patterns. The analysis was further extended by applying statistical tests, mainly the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and t- test. These tests were conducted to find out if there was any statistical significance difference between the groups observed and to see if any inferences upon the population can be made.

6.2 Statistical Tests

This section gives the detail definition of the variables, the rationale and how the data were processed before we arrived at the analysis. In this research, ANOVA and the t-test were selected as it was the most appropriate tools which could help us to indicate the relationships within the data and also allows us to make inferences from the results obtained¹.

6.2.1 ANOVA

The one-way ANOVA was used to test if there was any statistical significant difference between the groups in the independent variables: PScheme, AGE₁, POSITION and SERVICE₁ and responses to the questionnaires² (the dependent variables). It is important to define these variables to begin with:

(a) PScheme

This variable (PScheme) refers to the previous scheme³ the tax officer was holding prior to the corporatisation of MIRB. The variable was categorised into four groups:

- Tax Officer (Group 1) Represents the group of tax officers who are in their original scheme A20. After the corporatisation of MIRB it was renamed as Grade 7.

¹ The use of parametric statistic such as ANOVA is accepted in social science research as emphasised by Stevens in Newton and Rudestam (1999: 182), where he argued that: "To summarise this argument, most of the central constructs in the social sciences are conceptualised as continuous, and their distributions are such that the application of parametric statistics to their analyses will not result in seriously biased estimates. And if the variable are continuous, they must also by definition, be interval (1981, p.29)."

² Questions B21, B22, B23, B31 to B39 were not tested using ANOVA, but only descriptive statistics was used to analyse these questions.

³ The variable PScheme was created to differentiate officers in the career structure of MIRB, which we have explained in Chapter 2.

- Weeded Post (Group2) Represents the group of tax officers (A22 and A12⁴) whose posts were weeded and merged with Grade 7 after the corporatisation of MIRB.
- Rank and File (Group 3) Represents the group of tax assistants (from category B and C) who had been promoted to tax officers prior to the corporatisation of MIRB.
- Promotion (Group 4) Represents the group of tax officers in grade A11 (prior to the corporatisation) which was weeded and merged with grade 7 after the corporatisation.

The rationale for categorising them into these four groups is to see if there was any significant difference of opinions between these four groups as the result of the major restructuring of MIRB.

(b) AGE1

This variable (AGE1) consists of four age groups as below:

26 – 34 years old	=	Group 1
35 – 42 years old	=	Group 2
43 – 49 years old	=	Group 3
50 and above	=	Group 4

The rationale for recategorising the tax officers into these four age groups was to distinguish between the junior officers who were newly appointed and the senior officers who will be retiring. Generally, the new recruits of tax officers are between the age of 26 to 34 years old and it is assumed that at this age group their working experience would be less than 5 years, which is considered 'new' in the organisation.

⁴ There are four grades of officers in MIRB, which can be ranked according to their seniority, A11, A12, A20, and A22. The first two grades (A11 and A12) were promotional grades while the latter two grades (A20 and A22) were ordinary officers. Under the restructuring of MIRB, these four grades are merged into a new created grade known as Grade 7.

The groups 2 and 3 usually consist of tax officers who have passed their preliminary examination and the majority would have also cleared their advanced examinations. At this age they would have experience of serving various parts of the organisation. For those who fall in the age group of 50 and above, the underlying assumption about this group is that they are the most senior in age in this organisation. And since that they are close to the retiring age of 55, they are deemed to be the most experienced and the possessors of the organisations tacit knowledge. The analysis of this variable (AGE1) allowed us to see if age does have any bearing in their opinions on the issues raised.

(c) POSITION

This variable, POSITION was also categorised into four groups, where they represent:

- Ordinary Assessors
(Group 1) They are tax officers of Grade 7 under the new scheme of MIRB.
- Group Leaders
(Group 2) They are tax officers of Grade 7 under the new scheme of MIRB but leading a group of assessors at the branch or division level. They also represent the lowest level of managers at branch level.
- Deputy Group Leaders
(Group 3) They are tax officers of grade 7 under the new scheme of MIRB. As the deputy of the group leaders they are involved in assisting the Group leaders in the daily routines.

- Special Posts (Group 4) They refer to the tax officers of grade 7 but they hold special posts or designations such as Investigation Officer, public relations officer or training officers.

This categorisation was interesting because although they are officers of the same ranking and grades in the organisation, they hold different responsibilities and roles that give them greater or lesser power and authority. The designations are not promotional positions but those positions can be assigned to any of the tax officers (Grade 7) at the prerogative of the management. In some ways this exhibits the flexibility of roles within levels in the organisation and their opinions would reflect their differential position in the organisation.

(d) SERVICE₁

The variable, SERVICE₁ comprised four groups as below:

1-6 years of service	=	Group 1
7-15 years of service	=	Group 2
16-24 years of service	=	Group 3
25 years and above	=	Group 4

The number of years a tax officer has served would determine his/her level of experience. Group 1 is the most junior officers in the organisation and it is unlikely that they will have served many divisions or units in the organisation. Group 2 is tax officers who are assumed to have passed their preliminary examination and are in the process of undergoing the advanced examination. However, the majority would have already passed the advanced examinations. Group 3 consists of the tax officers who are well experienced as they have been with the organisation for more than 15

years but unfortunately have been stagnant in their current post. The competition for promotion between group 2 and 3 is very stiff since most of the tax officers would fall within these two groups. The tax officers who have served the organisation for 25 years and more (group 4), are the most senior in the organisation, rich with working experience in MIRB and about to retire. However, this also indicated that they are the group, which have not moved up the career ladder remaining stagnant until their retirement day.

6.2.2 *T-test*

The t-test was used to see if there was any significant difference between the independent variables GENDER and BRANCH1 with the items in the questionnaires. The variable GENDER consists of the male and female respondents who participated in answering the self-administered questionnaires. The variable BRANCH1 was reconstructed from the original variable BRANCH, which comprised of thirteen branches of MIRB's office from all over the country. The details of the samples selected in each branch were explained in Chapter 5.

The variable BRANCH1 was collapsed into two groups as below:

Near Headquarters = Group 1

Other States = Group 2

Group 1 consists of the branch offices in the area of Lembah Kelang, where the MIRB's head office is located, while Group 2 consists of MIRB's branch office in other parts of Malaysia. This categorisation is important to see if there was any significant difference of opinion between the respondents who are close to the head office and those locations further away from the head office.

6.2.3 Processing the Data

The ANOVA and t-test was run with the significance level set at $p \leq .05$. The results of the tests were observed to see which were significant. Subsequently, the next step for the ANOVA was to apply *Post Hoc* test, and in this study the Tukey test was ran on the variables that showed significant results to see which groups are involved. After the groups were identified, then the Means were computed for all the groups involved looking for the direction of the relationship between groups by comparing the means. From this, it was inferred that the group with the highest mean would constitute the clearest opinions on the issues pertaining to questions asked. The same procedure was repeated with the t-test for dichotomy variables.

Having defined these variables and described the process, the chapter proceeds with the analysis of the data. The information and explanation of these variables is important to give us a better understanding of the interpretation of the data. In interpreting the data from the inferential statistical results, only the results that are statistically significant at $p \leq .05$ are highlighted. However, it is important to remember, that, although other results are not highlighted, this does not mean the independent variables are not related to the dependent variables in any ways.

6.3 Knowledge and Learning in MIRB

In Chapters 2, 3 and 4 we have discussed both the importance of formal and informal learning in MIRB. Questions were posed on the issues of training to investigate to what extent training has been useful in this organisation as a tool of learning, helping the officers to solve on-the-job problems and to be innovative. The results are tabulated in table 6.1.

6.3.1 Formal and Informal Learning

The respondents were asked if the formal training was sufficient to prepare them for the job (Question A1). 74.5 per cent of the respondents generally agreed and 22 per cent disagreed that the formal training was sufficient. In contrast, 100 per cent agreed that the informal training was important in preparing them for the job (Question A2).

Table 6.1: Formal and Informal Learning in MIRB

QUESTIONS	strongly agree	agree	un-decided	disagree	strongly disagree	mean	N
The formal training given by National Tax Academy is sufficient to prepare me for the job. (A1)	12 %	62.5%	2.6%	21.4%	1.6%	3.62	192
The desk training (informal training) is important to prepare me for the job. (A2)	52.1%	47.9%	0%	0%	0%	4.52	192
The formal training helps me in solving problems encountered in my daily job. (A3)	15.6%	69.3%	6.3%	8.9%	0%	3.92	192
The training helps me to be innovative in my job. (A4)	15.6%	50.5%	15.1%	18.2%	0%	3.64	191

The result indicated that the informal training was significant for tax officers because of the nature of the job, which is very technical and requires them to have the real experience of doing the job. As argued in Chapter 4, the need to enhance tacit knowledge is important. Informal training is one of the ways that people in the organisation can share tacit knowledge and make it explicit to some extent.

Table 6.2: ANOVA: Position of the Tax Officers (POSITION) and Question A2

Position of the tax officers (POSITION)	<i>n</i> =158 Group 1 mean	<i>n</i> =24 Group 2 mean	<i>n</i> =8 Group 3 mean	<i>n</i> =2 Group 4 mean	<i>N</i> =192 Total means	Df	F-Ratio	Sig. at P ≤ 0.05
The desk training (informal training) is important to prepare me for the job. (A2)	4.50	4.75	4.38	4.00	4.52	3	2.789	.042

When we looked at the means of all the groups as illustrated in table 6.2, it clearly showed that at the scale of 5, all groups had a close mean between $m=4.00$ to $m=4.75$ which is close to the maximum score of 5. The high means of all the groups confirmed that all the respondents strongly agreed that the desk training or the informal training is important to their job.⁵

From table 6.1, 84.9 per cent agreed (Question A3) that formal training has been useful in helping the respondents to solve problems encountered in their daily work. The ability to solve routine problems can be equated with the single loop learning (Argyris, 1995) which is common in most bureaucratic organisations. However, a learning organisation requires double-loop learning (Argyris and Schon, 1996; Jones and Hendry, 1994) which enables them to perform beyond problem solving but also to enhance innovation. Innovation in a service professional organisation like MIRB would require tax officers, at least to perform better and faster ways of solving their client's problems. This requires shifting away from old ways of doing things or solving problems to new ways and short cuts. Adhering to the demand of the customers for better, efficient and faster service will be a matter of concern in developing innovation in MIRB. Nevertheless, only 66 per cent of the respondents

⁵ The results of ANOVA showed that there was a statistically significant difference [$F=2.79$, $p=.04$] between the four groups of tax officers (POSITION) in the specified positions and their opinions on the importance of desk training in preparing them for the job. However when the Tukey test was performed there was no indication as to which groups are involved in this relationship.

agreed that the training had helped them to be innovative in their job (Question A4), while 18.2 per cent disagreed with the statement.

6.3.2 Individual Learning

The learning of individuals in organisations add value to the organisation although it is not merely the sum of learning of its members that makes up organisational learning. The individual perceptions about learning will be a platform for us in understanding the learning culture of the organisation as a whole. The respondents were asked about the importance of learning as individuals in the organisation.

Table 6.3: Individual Perceptions on Learning

Questions:	Very important	Fairly important	Of some important	Fairly unimportant	Not important	mean	N
Keeping up with knowledge (B1)	85.9%	10.9%	1.6%	0%	1.6%	4.80	192
Sharing of knowledge (B2)	68.8%	26.6%	4.2%	0.5%	0%	4.64	192
Teamwork (B3)	70.3%	20.8%	6.8%	1.6%	0.5%	4.59	192
Team learning (B4)	60.7%	24.1%	12.6%	2.1%	0.5%	4.42	191
Learning for self development (B5)	55.2%	28.6%	13.5%	2.1%	0.5%	4.36	192
Career development (B6)	41.1%	32.8%	17.7%	6.3%	2.1%	4.05	192

Where keeping up with knowledge was concerned (Question B1), 85.9 per cent of the respondents strongly felt that it was very important to them, while 12.5 per cent generally felt it is important and 1.6 per cent stated that it was not important. Parallel to the agreement of the majority on the need to keep up with knowledge, 95.5 per cent of the respondents generally agreed that they needed to share knowledge (Question B2). Their answers ranged from considering it very important

to fairly important to share knowledge amongst each other.

About 97 per cent of the respondents were in consensus that teamwork (Question B3), team learning (Question B4) and learning for self-development (Question B5) were important in their working life. They were in agreement that keeping up with knowledge is vital for them and so is the sharing of knowledge and collaborating through teamwork and team learning. Malaysian culture emphasises collaboration in almost every aspect of life (Abdullah, 1992a, 1992b) and we will find that this practice in everyday life is present in the workplace. Abdullah (1992a) described how the Malaysian workforce emphasised collectivism:

Malaysians work extremely well in a team environment, as they like to have a sense of belonging. The spirit of collectivism is more important than individualism, and this is often translated in the willingness to give priority to group interest ahead of individual concern (p.9).

When the respondents were asked how much importance they placed on career development in their working life in MIRB (Question B6), less than half of them (41.1 per cent) stated that it was very important and 28.6 per cent felt that it was fairly important. About 8 per cent of the respondents felt that career development was not important to them. This result may signal that people have low expectations about their career development in the organisation. Although, the responses relating to learning factors produced very high scores, it bore little relationship to their career development. Respondents as we shall see were pessimistic about their future career development.

Table 6.4: ANOVA: Previous Scheme of Tax Officers (PSCHEME) and Questions B2 and B3

Previous scheme of tax officers (PSCHEME)	n=127 Group 1 mean	n=45 Group 2 mean	n=7 Group 3 mean	n=7 Group 4 mean	N=186 Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at P ≤ 0.05
Sharing of knowledge (B2)	4.68	4.62	3.86	4.71	4.63	3	4.51	.004
Teamwork (B3)	4.64	4.53	3.86	4.86	4.59	3	2.95	.034

From table 6.4⁶, the means for all the groups of tax officers in sharing of knowledge, showed high mean scores except for group 3 consisting of the tax officers promoted through rank and file. Group 3 represents the tax officers who are promoted through rank and file from the lower category which is group B and C officers (non graduate posts). The people in group 3 were not degree holders but the highest tertiary education they possessed would be a diploma. They are promoted after passing departmental examination and going through the promotion interviews. This result may indicate that the struggle of people from the lower rank to be promoted to higher level can result in opportunism (Williamson, 1975) where they may hoard knowledge to benefit them individually and get promoted because of stiff competition at their level. Nevertheless, the number of sample (n) in this group is low and caution is required in interpreting these statistics.

In teamwork, again we looked at the mean score to make some inferences. Again it showed that group 3 (rank and file officers) scored the lowest mean of all the groups. This result indicated that people who are promoted from rank and file (group 3) might have difficulties in teamwork. It is important to highlight the fact that groups

⁶ The results of the ANOVA test showed that there were statistically significant difference (F= 4.51, p=.00) between the groups in their agreement on the importance of sharing knowledge in the organisation (Question B2). When the tukey test was performed, no indication was shown as to where the differences between groups occurred.

1,2 and 4 consisted of people who have bachelor and masters degrees.⁷ The people who are promoted from the rank and file may find it difficult to share knowledge or even work as a team because of differences in educational background. Again because of the low n (number of samples) involved a note of caution needs to be reminded.

Table6.5: Training and Incentives

Questions:	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree	mean	N
An incentive allowance should be given to those who pass the advanced course. (A11)	60.4%	27.1%	2.1%	7.8%	2.1%	4.37	191
Passing the advanced course should be one of the criteria for promotion. (A12)	59.5%	24.5%	3.1%	9.9%	2.1%	4.31	191

The respondents were asked if an incentive allowance should be given to those people who have passed the advanced course (Question A11). 60 per cent strongly agreed and 27 per cent agreed that it should be given. A total of 84 per cent of the respondents felt that the advanced course should be one of the criteria for promotion.

⁷ The results obtained when the independent variable (PScheme) was tested against the importance of teamwork also showed that there is a statistically significant difference ($F=2.95$, $p=.034$) between groups 3 and groups 1 and 4. In this case, again the tukey test does not give us an indication as to which are the groups that have significant different of opinions.

Table 6.6: ANOVA: Previous Scheme of Tax Officers (PSCHEME) and Question A11

Previous scheme of tax officers (PSCHEME)	<i>n</i> =127 Group 1 mean	<i>n</i> =45 Group 2 mean	<i>n</i> =7 Group 3 mean	<i>n</i> =7 Group 4 mean	<i>N</i> =185 Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at $P \leq 0.05$
An incentive allowance should be given to those who passed the advanced course. (A11)	4.50	4.18	3.57	3.71	4.36	3	3.84	.011

In table 6.6, the ANOVA result showed that there is significant difference ($F=3.84$, $p=.01$) between the groups of tax officers from various schemes. However, when the Tukey test was performed, there was no indication as to which of the groups showed significant results.

Table 6.7: ANOVA: Tax Officer's Age (AGE1) and Question A11

The age of tax officers (AGE1)	<i>n</i> =25 Group 1 mean	<i>n</i> =105 Group 2 mean	<i>n</i> =40 Group 3 mean	<i>n</i> =21 Group 4 mean	<i>N</i> =191 Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at $P \leq 0.05$
An incentive allowance should be given to those who passed the advance course. (A11)	4.60	4.54	3.85	4.19	4.37	3	5.70	.001

In table 6.7, the ANOVA results showed that there was a significant difference between [$F=5.70$, $p=.00$] group 3 (age 43-49) and group 1 (age 26-34) and group 2 (age 35-42) in their opinions on the importance of paying incentive allowance to those who have passed the advanced examinations. Among these three groups, group 1 had the highest mean ($m=4.60$) followed by group 2 ($m=4.54$) which showed us that the people in these age groups who are young and new recruits regarded incentives to be important. These respondents are mostly on the lower scale of the salary scheme and therefore value monetary incentives more highly as compared to other age groups, which are already on the higher scale of the salary scheme. From this it can be inferred that the younger members of this organisation

while enthusiastic in performing their best, are also looking for monetary incentives and acknowledgement through promotions as a reward for learning.

6.3.3 *Sharing and Keeping up with Knowledge*

Learning in the organisation happens through interpersonal interaction in groups or teams (Handy, 1993) and this enables them to share knowledge with each other. In chapter 2, it has been identified that informal learning is more important in MIRB and this can occur only when people in the organisation share explicit and tacit knowledge. The sharing of tacit knowledge from the person who possesses it happens in the form of conveying their beliefs, perceptions and demonstrating their skills and experience to others. In the previous section we have seen how individuals emphasised the importance of sharing knowledge with others.

Table 6.8: Sources of Learning

	YES	NO
formal training (B31)	95.3%	4.7%
on the job training (B32)	97.4%	2.6%
experience (B33)	96.3%	3.7%
case law (B34)	92%	8%
taxpayers' file (B35)	95.8%	4.2%
peers (B36)	90.8%	9.2%
senior officers (B37)	94.6%	5.4%
interaction with customers (B38)	77%	23%
interaction with tax practitioners (B39)	76.1%	23.9%

When the respondents were asked about their sources of learning, 97 per cent ranked on-the-job training (informal training) to be their main source of learning, followed by their experience (96 per cent), the taxpayer's file (96 per cent), formal

training (95 per cent), senior officers (94 per cent), case laws (92 per cent), and peers (90 per cent). Interaction with customers (77 per cent) and interaction with tax practitioners (76 per cent) scored lowest. To a certain extent, although the tax practitioners were considered fellow stakeholders, they were not regarded as a major source of learning as compared to other sources.

6.4 Human Nature, Intelligence and Motivation

The sharing and keeping up with knowledge can be extended to a wider learning network. The results of the survey showed that 92.5 per cent (see table 6.9) of the tax officers perceived the tax practitioners with whom they dealt in their everyday routine as complementary to them rather than as their competitors or partners⁸. A learning network will enhance knowledge not only to people in the organisation but also to its stakeholders and help promote voluntary compliance within the general public. There are two main implications that can be drawn from this result. First, it indicated that there is a potential for extending a network of learning to stakeholders outside the organisation and second, it also indicated a possible gap in the knowledge or failure to innovate in MIRB since it 'relies' on professionals outside the organisation.

⁸ The perceptions of tax officers on the practitioners can be explained within these three terms. First, the tax practitioners can be regarded as competitors because of their roles as tax expertise in advising their clients and interpreting the tax law. Often the competitiveness in their service industries require them to be fast and responsive which led them to respond to changes more and implications that arises from tax amendments. Second, they can also be regarded as partners where MIRB established greater co-operation with them to ensure that they come up with accurate interpretation of tax laws and work towards promoting voluntary compliance. Finally, tax practitioners can be viewed as complementary where they filled up the gap, especially in educating the public.

Table 6.9: Perceptions on Tax Practitioners

	YES	NO
competitors (B21)	44.6%	55.4%
partners (B22)	48.2%	51.8%
complementary roles (B23)	92.5%	7.5%

It is therefore, important to strike a balance between accepting the practitioners as their complements and the need for MIRB to be knowledgeable and authoritative in its field. This issue is a delicate one. The question that MIRB has to ask is whether it should be concerned with collecting maximum revenue or should growth and development through learning also be in their agenda? This issue is addressed in the concluding chapter.

6.4.1 *Teamwork and Team Learning*

The questions in table 6.10, were intended to elicit respondents' perceptions on how they see the sharing of knowledge, teamwork and team learning in a wider sense which included peers and others in the organisation. In reality, sharing of knowledge and learning is closely related to teamwork (Handy, 1993) and social interaction (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

14 per cent of the respondents strongly agreed and 61 per cent agreed that people were sharing knowledge in the organisation. When the respondents were asked if they learned to enhance their future prospects outside the organisation (Question B12), 35 per cent generally disagreed with the statement, but interestingly 31 per cent of respondents were undecided in this issue, which is relatively high as compared to all other questions. About 33 per cent of the respondents admitted that

they were learning for their future prospect outside the organisation where they may become tax consultants or practitioners.

Table 6.10: Teamwork and Team Learning

Questions:	Strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	Strongly Disagree	mean	N
People are sharing knowledge with each other in this organisation. (B11)	14.1	60.7	12.6	11.5	1.0	3.75	191
I learn for future career prospects outside the organisation. (B12)	6.3	27.2	30.9	30.9	4.7	2.99	191
Working in a team gives me the opportunity to learn from others. (B13)	29.8	67.5	2.6	0%	0%	4.27	191
Team learning is more effective than individual learning. (B14)	41.6	49.5	5.8	3.2	0%	4.29	190
Teamwork is important in field audit (B15)	67.4	31.1	1.1	0.5	0%	4.65	190
Teamwork is important in investigation work. (B16)	66.3	30.0	3.2	0.5	0%	4.62	190

These data reveal that although one third of the respondents were willing to admit that they were learning for a future career outside the organisation, yet another third were very discreet about their opinions. Opportunism (Williamson, 1978) appears to prevail in the organisation and raised key issues about how the learning goals of individuals can be made congruent with those of the organisation.

The remainder of the questions in table 6.10 deals with teamwork and team learning in the organisation. When asked if teamwork gave them the opportunity to learn from others (Question B13), 30 per cent of the respondents strongly agreed, 67 per cent agreed while about 3 per cent were undecided. No respondents disagreed, which meant that they did not reject the fact that teamwork does contribute to their learning.

When queried whether team learning was more effective than individual learning (Question B14), 42 per cent strongly agreed and 50 per cent agreed that team learning is more effective. This further revealed that horizontal learning is part of the culture and practice in this organisation, which indicated a positive potential in building a learning organisation. While the majority shared the opinion that team learning and teamwork were important in MIRB, there were about 3 per cent of the respondents who disagreed with the opinion. More than 90 per cent of the respondents held the view that teamwork is important in their audit work and investigations, which are the core activities in the organisation. Teamwork has wider cultural roots than just those of the organisation so the way teams operate in this organisation may differ from those in the West. Teamwork seems to be working very well across the organisation horizontally. There was no way that vertical learning could be tested at this phase of the data analysis but it will be explored in the qualitative part of the research in chapter 7.

6.4.2 *Job Satisfaction and Motivation*

Lane (1991) offers a range of perspectives as to what are the motivating factors that gear people to perform in the workplace. Opportunity to learn and personal development can be seen as advancement in a person's life, which motivates them. Monetary rewards are not the only factor that motivates people to work. Tax officers find that their jobs are interesting which keeps them going, even though they may not be happy with other aspects of the organisation. Abdullah and Singh (1992) stressed that:

While money is generally the underlying factor that drives Malaysian to work, other factors such as opportunities for self-development, contributing to the community, nation and having good harmonious relationships are also important (p.40).

Table 6.11: Motivation at Workplace

Questions:	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree	mean	N
my job is interesting (A21)	20.3%	63.0%	10.4%	6.3%	0%	3.97	192
it provides personal development (A22)	17.7%	54.7%	11.5%	14.6%	0%	3.77	189
It give me the opportunity to learn (A23)	28.1%	67.2%	3.6%	1.0%	0%	4.22	192
working is a religious obligation (A24)	37.0%	42.2%	7.3%	9.9%	2.6%	4.02	190
it leads to my career development in MIRB (A25)	15.6%	42.4%	19.8%	17.7%	4.2%	3.48	191
it leads to my career development outside MIRB (A26)	12.5%	45.8%	25.0%	14.1%	2.1%	3.53	191

The level of motivation among the tax officers is generally high as the percentages in the table 6.11 shows. 83 per cent of the respondents agreed that their job was interesting (Question A21) which implies a potentially high degree of commitment to the organisation. About 72 per cent of the respondents agreed that their job provided them with personal development and 14 per cent disagreed. The opportunity to learn from the job (Question A23) scored the highest, with 95 per cent agreeing to the statement, which made it the most motivating factor for tax officers to perform in MIRB. Hence, this result should be further investigated, as it may be a signal that people are learning for the sake of pursuing their individual interests as previously suggested rather than for collective interest.

79 per cent of the respondents agreed that working is a religious obligation and therefore that motivated them to perform at the workplace. This is not surprising, as the majority of MIRB employees are Muslims who believe that working is a religious deed and thus one has to perform in order to earn their income in a respectable manner. Some Malaysian researchers in their study (Abdullah 1992b; Mansor and Ali. 1998), highlighted that the work ethic of Muslims in Malaysia, showed that

working is seen as a religious obligation among the Malays and giving their best is important for one's conscience.

When the issue of career development (Question A25) was linked to motivation, 58 per cent of the respondents agreed that learning would lead to their career development in MIRB, while 21 per cent disagreed with that statement. 47 per cent agreed that their learning would lead to their career development outside the organisation (Question A26). About 20 per cent of the respondents disagreed that their job lead to career development which means that there may be a problem since they may have been discouraged from seeking promotion.

Table 6.12: ANOVA: Years of Tax Officers Service (SERVICE) and Question A22 and A24

The number of years the tax officers have served (SERVICE)	<i>n</i> =28 Group 1 mean	<i>n</i> =87 Group 2 mean	<i>n</i> =52 Group 3 mean	<i>n</i> =24 Group 4 mean	<i>N</i> =189 Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at <i>P</i> ≤ 0.05
it provides personal development (A22)	3.46	3.74	3.76	4.21	3.77	3	2.99	.032
The number of years the tax officers have served (SERVICE)	<i>n</i> =29 Group 1	<i>n</i> =87 Group 2	<i>n</i> =51 Group 3	<i>n</i> =23 Group 4	<i>N</i> =190 Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at <i>P</i> ≤ 0.05
working is a religious obligation (A24)	4.27	4.38	3.49	3.52	4.02	3	11.90	.000

The ANOVA results (table 6.12) showed that there was a significant difference ($F=2.99$, $p=.032$) between the tax officers in group 2 (served 7-15 years) and the most senior officers in group 4 (served 25 years and more), in their opinions of whether their current job provides personal development (Question A22). Comparing the mean between the two groups, group 2 tended to have a lower mean ($m=3.74$) than group 4 ($m=4.21$) whose mean is the highest among all the four groups. This was perhaps due to the fact that tax officers who have served the

organisation for more than 25 years have attained stability and experience as compared to junior officers. The tax officers in group 2 are considered to be among those who are still struggling to be acknowledged by the organisation and are still active in the process of acquiring knowledge. In question A24, the respondents were asked their opinions of working as a religious obligation. The results of the ANOVA test (table 6.12) showed that there was a significant difference [$F=11.90$, $p=.00$] between the four groups of tax officers. The means of all the groups indicated the direction as to which group had the strongest opinion on the issue. Group 2 consisting of officers who had served the organisation for 7 to 15 years had the highest mean ($m=4.38$) followed by group 1 (served 1-6 years) who were the most junior serving officers in the organisation with a mean score of 4.38. People who had served the organisation more than 15 years may be a bit relaxed towards the idea but the mean score of these two groups, 3 and 4 was still relatively high.

Table 6.13: ANOVA: Age of Tax Officers (AGE1) and Their Previous Scheme (PScheme) and Question A24

The age of the tax officers (AGE1)	<i>n</i> =25 Group 1 mean	<i>n</i> =105 Group 2 mean	<i>n</i> =40 Group 3 mean	<i>n</i> =20 Group 4 mean	<i>N</i> =190 Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at $P \leq 0.05$
working is a religious obligation (A24)	4.08	3.30	3.32	3.85	4.02	3	9.96	.000
The previous scheme of tax officer (PScheme)	<i>n</i> =126 Group 1 mean	<i>n</i> =44 Group 2 mean	<i>n</i> =7 Group 3 mean	<i>n</i> =7 Group 4 mean	<i>N</i> =184 Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at $P \leq 0.05$
working is a religious obligation (A24)	4.16	3.48	4.00	4.71	4.01	3	6.14	.001

The ANOVA test (table 6.13) showed that there was a significant difference ($F=9.96$, $p=.00$) between the tax officers in age group 1 (age 26-34), group 2 (age 35-42) and group 3 (age 43-49) and the most senior officers in group 4 (age 50 and above). The tax officers in the younger age group 1 ($m=4.08$) tended to highly agree that working is a religious obligation as compared to group 2 and 3. However when the

importance of religion was associated with the variable PScheme (previous scheme of tax officers) the ANOVA showed that there was a significant difference [$F=6.14$, $p=.00$] between group 1 (the assessors), group 2 (the weeded post) and group 3 (people who are promoted). People who are in the promoted group scored the highest mean ($m=4.71$), followed by the ordinary tax officers (Group 1), while people whose posts are weeded had the lowest mean in associating work and religion.

6.5 Power, Control and Co-ordination

Sharing of power requires trust between the people in the organisation. In most bureaucratic organisations, power structures remain largely unchallenged or where an attempt to challenge them is made it can cause major difficulties (Fineman and Yiannis, 1996). In theory, power needs to be widely delegated and shared among individuals in order to enhance learning or to promote trust in the organisation. The hierarchical nature of the Malaysia society is extended to the workplace (Abdullah, 1992a; Sendut, 1991). Power is associated with hierarchy and a sense of respect for elders.

Table 6.14: Sharing of Power

Questions:	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	mean	N
I feel free to speak my mind on any aspect of the job even if it means disagreeing with my superior. (D1)	2.6%	11.5%	47.4%	27.6%	20.9%	2.67	192
The management encourages participation of the staff in making decision. (D2)	7.8%	13%	37.5%	37.7%	10.9%	2.76	192
My superior gets me involved when making decisions on work process. (D3)	7.9%	18.3%	41.9%	23.6%	8.4%	2.94	191
When performing my work, I get orders from my superior. (D4)	23.4%	32.8%	36.5%	7.3%	0%	3.72	192
I can make my own decision in solving my case. (D5)	14.6%	41.1%	35.9%	5.2%	3.1%	3.59	192

6.5.2 *Sharing of Power in MIRB*

A series of indirect or implied questions were asked, to find out to what extent the management of MIRB is willing to share power with employees in running the organisation. Only 2.6 per cent (table 6.14) of the respondents said that they always felt free to speak up their mind on any aspect of their job or even to disagree with their superiors. About 11 per cent replied often, while 47 per cent said sometimes, 27 per cent said seldom and 20 per cent said never. When asked whether the management encouraged participation in decision making, about 48 per cent of responses fell in the range of answers from seldom to never. Only 7.8 per cent felt that the management always encouraged their participation. Even the score on involving decision making in work processes was rather low as only 7.9 per cent said always, 18 per cent said often 41 per cent said sometimes. Others answered seldom or never as can be seen in table 6.14.

In performing their job, most of the tax officers said that they got orders from their superior, 23 per cent said always, 41 per cent said often and 36 per cent said sometimes. But in many ways, the tax officers were still able to make their own decisions in solving their cases, where 14 per cent said always, 41 per cent said often and 36 per cent said sometimes. To a certain extent, the tax officers were able to make decisions relevant to their daily routines because as professional and technical staff they are delegated the power to make decisions and judgements within the legal framework. This is what the notion of 'pigeonholing' mentioned in Chapter 3 meant, where it is possible for tax officers to make judgements based on standard repertoire (Mintzberg, 1979).

Table 6. 15: ANOVA: The Age of Tax Officers (AGE1), Their Previous Scheme (PSHEME) and Power Devolution

The age of the tax officers (AGE1)	n=25 Group 1 mean	n=106 Group 2 mean	n=40 Group 3 mean	n=21 Group 4 mean	N=192 Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at P ≤ 0.05
The management encourages participation of the staff in making decision. (D2)	2.96	2.56	2.88	3.29	2.76	3	2.99	.032
When performing my work, I get orders from my superior. (D4)	4.20	3.71	3.48	3.67	3.72	3	3.47	.017
The previous scheme of tax officers (PSHEME)	n=126 Group 1 mean	n=45 Group 2 mean	n=7 Group 3 mean	n=7 Group 4 mean	N=185 Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at P ≤ 0.05
My superior gets me involved when making decisions on work process.(D3)	2.91	2.73	3.14	4.14	2.92	3	11.90	.000

The ANOVA results (table 6.15) showed the majority of the questions related to sharing of power in the organisation had significant results. There is a significant difference between [$F=2.99$, $p=.03$] the tax officers in group 2 (age 35-42) and group 4 (age 50 and above) in their opinions of whether management encouraged participation in decision making (Question D2). Tax officers who are 50 years old and above ($m=3.29$) tended to view management as more encouraging the participation of staff in making decision as compared to people in group 2 who were more junior to them. The overall mean for this question is particularly low on average. There is also a significant difference between [$F=3.47$, $p=.01$] tax officers in group 3 (age 43 -49) and the most junior officers (age 26-34) in getting order from their superiors (Question D4). We can infer that the more senior a tax officer is in age the less orders they get from their superiors. Senior or older officers also have greater access to the management due to their long service and established relationship in the organisation.

On the other hand the t-test result (Appendix XIV) showed that there is a significant difference between [$t=2.20$, $df=183$, $sig.=.02$] male and female in the encouragement of the management to participate in decision making (Question D2). The males ($m=2.95$) felt that management did encourage their participation as compared to the females ($m=2.61$). Again by looking at the mean, it is obvious that the scores for both groups were still relatively low, given the scale 1-5, from strongly disagree to strongly agree. These means were also relatively low as compared to other section of the questionnaires.

The ANOVA results (table 6.15) for the questions which asked if superiors gets the tax officers to be involved in decision making on work processes, showed that there was a significant difference between [$F=11.90$, $p=.00$] the promoted tax officers (group 4) and the ordinary tax officers (group 1) and those whose posts had been weeded (group 2). The tax officers who are in group 4 (promoted) were previously in the managerial positions (grade A11) and therefore had stronger associations with the management as compared to other groups. Although, after corporatisation, their posts were merged with the ordinary tax officers, they still enjoyed some significant influence in the division or units they were working in, because most of them held at least the position of group leaders. The mean score between these three groups showed wide differentials, with group 4 having a mean of 4.14, while the ordinary tax officers have a mean of 2.91 and the officers whose posts were weeded with the lowest mean of 2.73. From these results it can be said that the officers whose posts were weeded, understandably, have little perception of power sharing in the organisation.

The t-test (Appendix XIII) showed that there is also significant difference between [t=2.61, df=174, sig.=.01] male and female on this issue. The male ($m=3.16$) participation in decision making in work process was higher as compared to the female ($m=2.77$).

6.6 Management-Employee Relationships

With this issue, we only concentrated on three aspects of management-employee relationships: communication; learning at an organisational level; and trust in the organisation. The most important underlying principles in the management-employee relationships is the issue of trust, which needs to be present in the organisation in order to enhance learning.

6.6.1 Communications

In an organisation where tacit learning is involved, an effective communication process is essential. Nonaka (1991), described tacit knowledge as highly personal, “we can know more than we can tell.” As such the dissemination of knowledge will depend on the communication process and channels that are available in the organisation. In larger organisations, rigid hierarchical boundaries can get in the way of communication and involvement. The more senior an officer is in rank the less accessible he or she becomes. This barrier in communication can lead to further problems in learning and trust.

Table 6.16: Communications in MIRB

QUESTIONS:	strongly agree	Agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree	mean	N
I can discuss any job-related problems with my group leaders at all times. (A13)	21.9%	57.8%	8.3%	10.4%	1.6%	3.88	192
The senior management is easily accessible when I need to discuss my work problems. (A14)	10.9%	51.6%	17.2%	15.6%	4.7%	3.48	192
Communication between various levels of hierarchies in IRB is very formal. (A15)	19.3%	53.6%	7.8%	17.7%	1.0%	3.73	191

In table 6.16, 22 per cent of the respondents strongly agreed and 57 per cent agreed that they could discuss any job-related problems with their group leaders or immediate supervisors at all times (Question A13 and 14). The respondents (62 per cent) generally agreed that the senior management was accessible when they need to discuss their work problems but about 20 % disagreed that the management was easily accessible. When asked if communication between various levels of hierarchies in MIRB was very formal, about 73 per cent generally agreed with that statement.

It is interesting to relate these results with the cultural aspect of Malaysian society where age and positions are matters of concern in communications as explained in Chapter 2. Subsequently, the analysis is further extended to test the significance of the two independent variables, positions (POSITION) and age of tax officers (AGE1). The ANOVA results in table 6.17 showed that there was a significant difference between $[F= 4.19, p=.00]$ the positions of the tax officers in group 1 (ordinary assessors), group 2 (Group leaders) and group 3 (Deputy Group Leader) and the accessibility to the senior management in discussing their work problems. The

deputy group leader mean score ($m=2.38$) was the lowest as compared to the group leaders ($m=3.83$) and the ordinary tax officers ($m=3.49$). The roles of the deputy group leaders are just to assist the group leaders in the functioning of the group and there is a tendency for the assessors to by-pass them and go straight to the group leader. However, the most junior officers in group one felt much stronger than the deputy group leader because they are the most active group and frequently their expertise is being sought by the management at the branch or headquarters level.

Table 6.17: ANOVA: POSITION and AGE1 on Question A14

The position of the tax officers (POSITION)	$n=158$ Group 1 mean	$n=24$ Group 2 mean	$n=8$ Group 3 mean	$n=2$ Group 4 mean	$N=192$ Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at $P \leq 0.05$
The senior management is easily accessible when I need to discuss my work problems. (A14)	3.49	3.83	2.38	3.50	3.48	3	4.19	.007
The age of the tax officers (AGE1)	$n=25$ Group 1 mean	$n=106$ Group 2 mean	$n=40$ Group 3 mean	$n=21$ Group 4 mean	$N=192$ Total means	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at $P \leq 0.05$
The senior management is easily accessible when I need to discuss my work problems. (A14)	3.04	3.44	3.83	3.57	3.48	3	3.20	.024

When the age of tax officers (AGE1) were taken into the analysis, the ANOVA results showed that there is a significant difference [$F= 3.20$, $p=.02$] between the various age group of the tax officers and accessibility to the senior management. In table 6.17, group 3 and 4 show the highest mean as compared to group 1 and 2, the more junior tax officers. Again this exhibited the cultural influence in Malaysian organisation in general and MIRB in particular, where the elders are respected and are in a better position to access people at the higher level of the hierarchy.

6.6.2 Learning at the Organisational Level

Argyris and Schon (1978) argued that individual learning is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for organisations to learn. To encourage learning at the organisational level requires a strong learning culture.

Table 6. 18: Learning at the Organisational Level

Questions:	Strongly Agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree	mean	N
Learning is a continuous process in this organisation (E1)	67.2%	31.8%	0%	0.5%	0.5%	4.65	192
My job requires learning (E2)	63%	37%	0%	0%	0%	4.63	192
The management at all levels encourages learning of the staff. (E3)	29.8%	45.5%	17.3%	4.7%	2.6%	3.95	191
The MIRB management facilitates my learning needs. (E4)	8.4%	44.2%	24.2%	20.5%	2.6%	3.35	190
I am responsible for my personal learning development. (E5)	42.7%	49%	6.3%	2.1%	0%	4.32	192

The result of the questionnaires showed that, 99% of the respondents agreed and only 1% disagreed that their job required learning and learning is a continuous process in the organisation. All respondents (100%) agreed that their job requires learning and about 75% of the respondents agreed that the management at all levels encouraged learning. 52% of the respondents agreed that the management facilitates their learning needs while about 23 % did not agree that the management had facilitated their learning needs. When the respondents were asked if they were responsible for their personal learning development, about 92% agreed with the statement.

The t-test results (Appendix XV) showed that there was a significant difference between $[t=-2.69, df=134, sig.= .00]$ the branches which are closest to the

headquarters and those who are in other states on their views as to whether learning is a continuous process in MIRB (Question E1). The mean for those who are in other states ($m=4.70$) were higher than those near the headquarters ($m=4.50$). When asked if the management at all levels encouraged their learning, the t-test result showed that there was a significant difference between [$t=-2.36$, $df=143$, $sig=.02$] the 2 groups. Tax officers in other states ($m=4.08$) agreed more as compared to tax officers close the headquarters ($m=3.75$). There was also a significant difference between [$t=-2.48$, $df=142$ $sig=.01$] the tax officers in other states (group 2) and those near the headquarters (group 1) in their opinions of whether the management is facilitating their learning needs. Those who are in other states ($m=3.50$) felt stronger in their opinions as compared to the tax officers around the headquarters ($m=3.13$).

From the results, it can be concluded that the tax offices that are situated away from the headquarters tended to be more positive in their opinions about how supportive the management⁹ is towards their learning. The tax offices that are close to the headquarters are mostly in the area of Lembah Kelang, which is a prime business area in and near the cosmopolitan city of Kuala Lumpur. The workload of those near the headquarters is greater as compared to other states where there are some small offices. While the relationships of people in headquarters are very official and superficial, the branches in other states have a more decelerate working environment. All these factors explain why there are differences of opinions between these groups in different locations. The t-test on gender also showed that there is a significant difference [$t=-2.31$, $df=183$, $sig=.02$] between the males and females in their opinions of whether the management does facilitate their learning needs. The males ($m=3.53$) believed more strongly than the females ($m=3.21$) that

management is supportive in this aspect. This may be because males have more access to management, which may be due to the generally male dominant culture of the Asians.

6.6.3 Trust

In the review of the literature, it has been shown that trust is one of the conditions germane in building a learning organisation. Trust as one of the elements in social capital (Coleman, 1990; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998) which promotes collaboration and learning. The bureaucratic organisation which is known for its low trust (Fox, 1974) environment would suggest that building a learning organisation would be difficult as it is unlikely that learning will take place in a low trust organisation.

Table 6.19: Trust in MIRB

Questions:	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree	mean	N
In performing my job I can act independently with minimum supervision. (C1)	25.7%	64.9%	3.1%	6.3%	0%	4.10	191
I am given enough autonomy and discretion in performing my job. (C2)	11.5%	57.6%	12.0%	17.3%	1.6%	3.6	191
I should be given more autonomy and discretion in performing my job. (C3)	0%	12.6%	17.4%	49.5%	20.5%	3.8	190

In this survey, the questions posed were intended to investigate the level of trust in MIRB. 26 per cent of the respondents (see table 6.19) strongly agreed that they could act independently with minimum supervision, while 65 per cent agreed and 6.3 per cent disagreed. About 69 per cent of the respondents generally agreed that they are given enough autonomy in performing their job and only 19 per cent felt that they

⁹ The tax officers are referring to the management at their branch level because most branches in group 2 who participates in the research are situated very far away from the headquarter in Kuala Lumpur.

were not given enough autonomy. The findings were interesting in the sense that the respondents were contented with the level of trust given to them. 49.5 per cent disagreed and 20.5 per cent strongly disagreed that they should be given more autonomy and discretion in performing their job. Nobody strongly agreed that they should be given more autonomy and discretion in performing their job and only 12.6 per cent agreed to that statement. This indicated a strong feature of the organisation where trust is always accompanied by accountability and bureaucrats operating within a legal framework. The awareness that each responsibility is accompanied by accountability tends to deter people away from asking for more autonomy and discretion. The feelings of wanting to be protected by the law and more senior officers in times of crisis are almost inevitable in any bureaucracy.

Table 6.20: ANOVA: The Age of Tax Officers (AGE1), Years of Service (SERVICE) and Question C3

The age of the tax officers (AGE1)	n=23 Group 1 mean	n=106 Group 2 mean	n=40 Group 3 mean	n=21 Group 4 mean	N=190 Total mean	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at P ≤ 0.05
I should be given more autonomy and discretion in performing my job. (C3)	3.86	3.92	3.63	3.24	3.78	3	3.96	.009
The number of years the tax officers served (SERVICE)	n=28 Group 1 mean	n=86 Group 2 mean	n=52 Group 3 mean	n=24 Group 4 mean	N=190 Total mean	Df	F- Ratio	Sig. at P ≤ 0.05
I should be given more autonomy and discretion in performing my job. (C3)	3.82	3.84	3.88	3.25	3.78	3	3.19	.025

The ANOVA results (table 6.20) showed that there is a significant difference [$F=3.96$, $p=.00$] between group 4 (age 50 and above) and group 2 (age 35-42) in their opinion of whether they should be given more autonomy and discretion in performing their job. The tax officers in group 2 ($m=3.92$) seemed to be demanding more discretion and autonomy than the tax officers in group 4 ($m=3.24$). This is

because those people in group 4 were close to retirement age and therefore not as enthusiastic as the younger ones in group 2. As we have emphasised, Officers in group 2 are the most active group in MIRB. The ANOVA test also showed there is a significant difference between [$F=3.19$, $p=.03$] groups 4, 3 and 2. Those who had served 25 years (group 4) and more had the lowest mean ($m=3.25$) as compared to those who had served 7-15 years ($m=3.84$) and those who had served 16 to 24 years ($m=3.88$). Those who had served 25 years and more did not feel that they need to have more autonomy and discretion in performing their job as most of them were close to the retiring age, but the younger group tended to demand more autonomy and discretion. These tax officers who are in the retiring age group were less concerned about their level of autonomy because they are towards the end of their career in the organisation and the degree of autonomy do not make any difference in their daily performance.

6.7 Summary

Obviously, descriptive and inferential statistical tests formed only one part of the whole analysis. The questionnaires have generated data that gave us an indication that there are several issues that need further investigation. Although, the ANOVA and the t-tests allowed us to make some crucial inferences there are still other aspects, which require further analysis. Apparently, looking at the data in general, it indicated that MIRB has crucial problems in communication, trust and power devolution, which need further investigation. The data from the questionnaires signalled the evidence that there are various cultural elements embedded in most issues, which needed further clarification.

In the next chapter we will be looking at data from the open ended questions from the questionnaires, interviews and observations. This will help clarify and explain some of the issue raised here. For example it is interesting to note that although the data revealed that MIRB have problems in communication, sharing of powers and trust, on the other hand the responses on teamwork and motivation were overwhelmingly positive. The quantitative data could not explain why this is the case.

The links between learning and incentives and career progression in MIRB are weak. In particular the prospects for career progression have been compromised by the introduction of a flatter organisation. The problems this might cause in the West are mitigated by cultural factors in Malaysia, especially the role of religious duty to do a good job irrespective of work conditions and this duty also involves the desire to learn. However, amongst the younger members of the organisation there appeared to be a tension between religious duty and the desire to link learning to reward. It is unclear whether this is structural since they are the most junior and lowest paid members of MIRB, but this indicated that the new generation of educated Malays expect more material rewards and recognition.

Teams are a real strength with respect to learning although officers considered they have a high degree of autonomy in which they saw few barriers to discussing casework with seniors. However, there is a clear distinction to be drawn between decision-making about technical issues and those of more fundamental policy. Power in decision-making is not devolved and while there is 'horizontal' trust among teams this is not so in terms of communication about policy issues upwards from the grass roots. In terms of double loop learning this is a fundamental problem.

There are high degrees of expressed motivation for the job but for about a third, at least, of those sampled the motivation to learn, in particular, may be a means to getting a job outside the organisation. That is, a job in the private sector. Again it is noteworthy that although personal motivation, aided by teamwork is high in the organisation, younger officers do not see work as such a means to personal development as older colleagues. Given this assessment of the situation in MIRB we should now extend the analysis through an examination of the qualitative data.

CHAPTER 7: THE QUALITATIVE DATA

7.1. Introduction

In Chapter 6, we presented the quantitative data from the survey conducted. The data revealed that there were several issues that needed further explanation and can be investigated using qualitative methods. The open-ended questions posed during the survey also gave responses that needed to be analysed together with the interview data. In this chapter, the analysis of data collected from instruments such as in-depth interviews, observation and answers from the open-ended questions of the survey will be analysed and presented. Data were selected for presentation on the basis of whether they could illuminate the issues relating to this thesis framework on bureaucracies and learning organisations.

The survey data provided patterns and trends of opinions that exist in MIRB with regards to learning and related issues. The underlying factors such as culture, power and trust have an impact on the organisational learning capabilities which can only be revealed through in-depth interviews by interpreting the deeper meaning of what was written in the open-ended responses from the questionnaires completed by the respondents.

The sections in this chapter were organised according to the categories developed in the theoretical framework in chapters 3 and 4. The respondents were interviewed according to semi-structured questions developed from the pilot survey, literature and the researcher's experience. However, this list of questions (see Appendix II) remained a guideline because the interview demands the researcher to probe and

investigate any new issues that surface during the interview. Therefore, the semi-structured interview served as a tool to provide consistency across interviews.

7.2 Knowledge and Learning in MIRB

7.2.1 Training in MIRB

The importance of formal training as a basic tool of developing the skills of MIRB employees is undeniable. The amount of money spent on building the infrastructure of the academy with an operating expenditure of more than RM 2 million annually (National Tax Academy, Annual Report, 1995-1996), indicates the strong commitment of MIRB in training its employees. The formal training provides for the theoretical aspect of taxation while the desk training and other informal training activities are intended to complement it. Many agreed that both types of training have been very useful and important for the tax officers. One example to illustrate this point is that people who have no academic background in accounting or law found that the formal training has enabled them to perform their job at par with their colleagues. They improved their understanding of the taxation concept by applying the learned theory to practical situations. A tax officer commented that:

I came to this organisation with no knowledge of taxation but the formal training especially the preliminary course and the desk training at the branch level has been very effective for me. I passed all my examinations. (L19)

...having gone for the advanced course makes it easier when they come here, because they have covered many of the theoretical aspect of the work so when they comes to company branch they will get the practical aspect of it by doing the file. (L31)

In MIRB, technical training is made compulsory. Officers have to attend one week of lectures every month in the Academy and it takes about 10 weeks to complete a module depending on how extensive the coverage of each module. The management

at all levels is not allowed to stop their staff from attending in-house training. The technical training for all staff is vital in providing them with the basic principles and an examination is given at the end of each course to evaluate their understanding of the principles.

Because the preliminary examination is made compulsory, serious efforts are made by the staff to ensure that they passed and get confirmed in their job as soon as possible. However, the problem arises at the advanced stage where the failure rate is high. A senior officer commented on the high failure rate:

I think it is still the individual attitude. It is not that the exams are difficult but because people tend to think that exams are archaic. But we feel by giving the exams we try to tell them to be serious with the training. (M4)

One possible explanation for this problem is probably due to the fact that there is no incentive related to this stage of training and therefore the tax officers find that passing the examination was irrelevant. The debate that has been going on in MIRB is, some people feel that passing the examination has nothing to do with one's performance. Although some people have not passed the examination, they perform excellently in their daily job. On the other hand, the management felt that examinations are necessary to ensure seriousness and commitment in learning. A tax officer expressed his opinion on examination and work performance:

No, I don't think it should be a criterion for promotion because passing an exam is one thing but he/she may not be able to perform the job. The exam is base on theoretical knowledge but doing the job is a practical experience in real world. You can pass the exam but still may be unable to perform the job. (L10)

Apart from the formal training, there are other types of training given to the staff to develop certain specialised skills, which are not exam oriented, and these are becoming more popular. Many find the courses in auditing, computing and self

development courses interesting, but the chances can be limited due to work pressure in their respective divisions. However, the survey data showed that there is another aspect of training that is also crucial in MIRB. In the survey the respondents unanimously agreed (100%) that informal training is important for MIRB.

The answers to the open-ended questions in the survey revealed that learning is an important activity in developing skill and expertise in the organisation. Relying on training alone is not sufficient to enhance innovation in the organisation. The comments from two tax officers provide evidence that there is room for improvement on training in MIRB:

More research needs to be done on the training needs of technical staff other than a mere academic approach to tax law, its implementation and enforcement. Learning must be more directly related to job function and enhancement of analytical and interpretative skills. (KG007/59)

The formal training given by the NTA is too rigid and exam oriented. Students are not given sufficient opportunity to be innovative in solving current issues and problems. (IP003/118)

The result of the survey indicated that the informal learning is crucial to this organisation. MIRB fits into the criteria of a professional bureaucracy where it “relies for co-ordination and the standardisation of skills and its associated design parameter, training and indoctrination” (Mintzberg, 1979: 349). Nevertheless, the complexity of the job does allow for considerable discretion especially in making judgements. Hence, making judgements involves not only formal technical knowledge but also tacit knowledge that can only be acquired through informal learning.

7.2.2 *Informal Learning in MIRB*

Training concentrates on developing certain skills needed for the staff to enable them to perform their tasks, while learning covers a wider perspective. As we have seen, the formal training in MIRB is systematically co-ordinated as described in Chapter 2, but the informal training is unstructured. The amount of learning absorbed by the trainee depends largely on the quality of the checkers (mentors), how frequently the job is rotated, and the amount of initiative one puts in trying to maximise learning. The benefit of the desk training is that it gives a trainee the opportunity of learning by doing and it involves real life problem solving. The group leaders at the unit level stressed the importance of informal learning in MIRB:

The informal training is important and it actually complements the formal training. In the formal training it involves a large group but in the informal training more emphasis on each individual is given. (L2)

I am involved in the desk training of new officers in my group. First these officers are given the files to study. There are a lot of things to learn from the files. After that I gave them simple files to do and solve the case. All their work will be checked. I also encourage them to read the manual. (L37)

Although the survey showed that the respondents felt strongly (100% agreed) about the need for informal training, the interview results showed a more balanced view as the interviewees were more free to elaborate their opinions.

Both are equally important. It provides the theoretical part and practical part and therefore both are important. All of us are involved in the desk training. Yes we are. In the formal training probably the staff only gets 50 per cent of the knowledge but when they come here we have to train them. Here for the desk training we concentrate on corporate cases and company procedures. (L31 and L23)

I think the informal training is important to the tax officers. Both kind of training are equally important. The formal training provides the basics while the informal training complements it. (L32, L3, L13)

A majority of the respondents agreed that both types of training were very important for them. Nevertheless there were also some, who felt strongly about the informal training as compared to the classroom training. The officers who have been in the organisation for more than 20 years felt that both were equally important:

...The formal training only provided the basic theoretical aspects, it needed to be supported by the desk training. The desk training is very effective. (L10)

There needs to be a certain amount of theory being taught. I would agree that we need more case studies and more practical approach should be brought in the curriculum. So in class you are given the theory then you are back to office for the practice aspect. While theories are being taught, they could also bring their practical problem in class so it provides both scope of theory and practice. (M4)

In the questionnaire the respondents were asked if they would like to add anything on the importance of learning in MIRB. Some comments were received from 36 of the respondents and here are some of them:

Due to work pressure - is there time to learn in MIRB? (KK06/6)

One will be left behind if one do not up date oneself with all the learning activities and learning sessions. Everyday in MIRB is counted as a learning day. (KK007/7)

In MIRB, there is no end to learning. You can't afford to rest and be contented with the knowledge acquired during the basic or advanced course. (MK002/39)

One requires a high level of memory power. A good tax officer is one who is able to recall what he has learned with ease, and apply what he has learned. (MK005/42)

Learning is important because it increases and enhances the confidence of staff to carry out their work. (MK014/51)

The duties are so specialised that we do not get to learn other fields of taxation. As such our "learning process" is limited and narrow. (PG004/91)

There is a multitude of learning to do in MIRB and it's on the initiative of the person to do so. If the staff is lazy and unwilling to learn, there is not much management can do. (SR008/144)

The opinions above indicated that tax officers realise the importance of learning in their job. However, some of their interpretations of learning seem to be individualistic as they saw learning to be related more to their ability to perform as an individual. On the other hand, there were others who tended to relate learning to the wider issue of a rapidly changing environment:

Learning in MIRB is self-motivated at your own cost. However, recognition is not given where it is due. Nevertheless, one still has to learn in order to perform and keep abreast with changes. (KG001/53)

The process of learning is of utmost importance in IRB. With fast changing trends in business and financial practises, it is imperative that tax officers keep up with changing trends. Furthermore with self-assessment and the stepping up of field audit, tax officers should be adequately trained and equipped with the necessary skills for the future. (JB016/83)

Although much can be learnt through reading, people with experience are still required to guide. But these types of people are a dying breed in IRB because most are retiring soon. There is a big gap between the next in line and this experienced group of people because of bad planning in staffing. (PP002/96)

As long as you are here in the MIRB, there is no end in learning and acquiring knowledge. We must keep abreast with the present times especially the economic situations and the need to master the taxation laws prevailing in certain developed countries. (AA6/164)

Many tax officers that I interviewed felt that they needed to learn more than what is delivered in the classroom training. The interviewees also emphasised the importance of learning from seniors, which implied that tacit learning is a significant feature of the learning process in MIRB. The respondents were very enthusiastic when describing their learning experience in MIRB:

The Tax department is one department where you find that every year according to the stage of development in our country, they keep on amending the tax. There are so many changes going on which makes our job tedious as well as interesting in this organisation. (L7)

....when a senior with practical experience goes out with the team, he/she will tell you not only what you should do but he tells you why you need to do it. This is very important and you learn in the process. Not everything is stated in the book of accounts and therefore, the senior's experience is important. (L7)

Another aspect of continuous learning quoted by all technical officers is the importance of understanding the nature of business and industries that they are dealing with. This has many implications on how an entity is taxed and the tax treatment will depend on the understanding of the technical officer. Although there are guidelines provided by MIRB, it only provides the principles, the details are usually not spelled out. The business world changes rapidly, with electronic commerce, development of high technology industries and globalisation of world trading these would definitely impact on the tax system. A senior officer confirmed that:

In MIRB, learning is a must. We are involved with wider issues at national or global level. We deal with every entity in the economy and our scope is very wide. (S4)

Regardless of whatever problems MIRB faces, learning has to continue or the tax system would be inefficient as a result of poor tax administration. Hence, it is interesting to analyse how the members of the organisation learn in order to cope with the evolving and challenging external environment. In a bureaucracy, learning is difficult, as it is unlikely that risks can be easily tolerated and thus learning from mistakes may not be an option as suggested in Chapter 2.

7.2.3 Learning from Mistakes

People make mistakes in many facets of their lives as they engage in a learning process. MIRB realises that mistakes occur in the learning process and are very concerned with the concept of learning from mistakes. Mistakes are taken seriously by the management in the sense that the error rate is a yardstick of measuring the efficiency of employees and also the organisation. Although, the idea put forward by

management is towards zero defects, they do set a tolerable error rate for individuals (4%) and also for the organisation as a whole (6%).

The case that I went through was how the tax practitioner play with time and the poor communication between divisions has resulted in the loss of revenue.... From this incident MIRB learnt that the need to protect government interest is and it is necessary to raise assessment while taxpayers are appealing their case. In my case I learnt from my mistakes and felt that I needed to protect the government's interest. If we think we are right we should raise assessment and if their appeal merits a reduced assessment we will consider it. (L37)

The error rate is monitored by the Quality Division of MIRB and the internal quality audit has been an integral part of the organisational system in ensuring quality of service and output produced. The quality division regularly audits the performance of branches especially in the assessment work, which is the core business of MIRB. A group leader when asked about the nature of errors committed by his staff considered them as minor errors:

Yes but very few. However the errors identified are mostly careless mistakes. It is not technical error. I think this is because of the large volume of files allocated to the officers and they tend to concentrate on speed and production, which sometimes cause them to make careless mistakes. (L37)

The importance of internal audit and learning from mistakes was emphasised by one of the top management, who spoke of the importance of monitoring mistakes:

Monitoring the mistakes is important for us because, this may be an indicator that our training is not sufficient and perhaps if the same mistakes are repeated then there may be discrepancies in the interpretation of the law. (S3)

Technical mistakes are taken seriously in the sense that these may signal technical incompetence and the officers involved may need help or clarification. The concern is that people must learn from the mistakes they make and it must be taken as a route to learning not to repeat the same mistakes. However, in most cases the quality division reported that officers are more inclined to make careless mistakes

and most of the group leaders interviewed confirmed that they do detect careless mistakes of their staff. Monitoring mistakes is undertaken with good cause, it is done in the spirit of improving the quality of their output and services. This message is made clear and has been conveyed in every meeting at all levels of the organisation. However, excessive monitoring of mistakes can lead to rigidity and other problems such as mistrust.

It is important that mistakes should be minimised, to ensure customers' satisfaction and to improve the service provided by organisations from time to time. For the past few years, the organisation has been seriously emphasising quality standards of their output (notice of assessments) and services produced. Various quality programmes and concepts such as Zero Defects, Quality Circles (QC) and Total Quality Management (TQM) were introduced in the organisation. The Quality Division serves as the internal audit for the organisation and their goals are to help the various branches comply towards the stipulated quality standards.

7.2.4. Performance versus Learning

Consequently MIRB is very concerned about its own performance and often tends to be obsessed with quantity. Almost everything is being translated into quantifiable terms; individuals produce weekly/monthly and annual statistics of their productivity. Production in terms of cases settled and revenue collected is constantly monitored at all levels in the organisation. To a large extent, they are very quantitative oriented, which implies that a high level of surveillance is present in this organisation.

The danger is that, the wrestle between quantity versus quality could breed other problems that relate to the attitude of the staff. Some people will resort to slipshod work to achieve the quantity target or undertaking easy files to increase production in their monthly statistical reports. As a result learning from doing the files will be taken lightly and not utilised to its maximum. This situation leaves a profound dilemma in most of the tax officers as to what their choice would be, is it learning and quality or the quantity of work done that is more important? A tax officer commented that:

What makes learning difficult in this organisation is the struggle between quantity and quality. When the management emphasises the quantity of production, the quality aspect will be ignored even at the slightest chance. As officers we do not want our files to accumulate and then face the consequences. As a result we cannot spend too much time trying to learn and allow our production to lag. We are in fact in a dilemma when it comes to the question of quantity versus quality. (L32)

It is not fair in a way. It is a question between quantity vs. quality. Some officers who concentrate on quality tend to do fewer files. It looks like the management is focusing too much on quantity. An officer should be evaluated based on his/her teamwork, willingness to learn. (L37).

Interestingly, one of his colleagues expressed a more positive attitude despite of the workload problem:

Personally I have to balance the need to produce quality work and the need to achieve the quantity. I have to set a target. In such situations, my learning is limited due to the circumstances. If I want to learn then I would have to do it on my own effort. I feel that if I take workload as a reason for not being able to learn, I think I am at the losing end. So despite of the workload I feel that my learning is important to me. (L13)

The predicament faced by the employees on performance versus learning is a crucial issue in MIRB. The CEO, implicitly expressed her concerns when asked what are the blockages to learning in MIRB:

...we have to balance our strategy, between training our people and the need to keep up with productivity. In this organisation it really depends where you are, the people in training for

example are more relax than other branches. For example people in assessment they are faced with dilemma in training their people because they have their constraint. (S1)

Here, the question arises of whether the person is learning for his own goal or for the organisations' goals. The challenge of a learning organisation is to make both the goals and interests of individuals and the organisation congruent. MIRB should concentrate on broader goals, while getting the personal goals in line with the organisational goals. Learning should be seen to serve both these needs and fully integrated in all organisation activities.

MIRB has used its Quality Division as the check and balance on the internal system. However, such systematic surveillance can hamper learning because people will not take any risk of making mistakes and thus impede any innovative efforts. In the last five years greater emphasis has been given to improving customer service and quality service internally as well as externally. A part from the internal audit by the Quality Division, MIRB is also subjected to external monitoring by the Federal Audit. The Head of the Quality Division stresses that it is best to develop an effective in-house control and monitoring system rather than having its flaws spotted by outsiders. They want to have a good public image in the country.

The Quality Division of MIRB has been trying to sell the idea that every branch of MIRB should set up their own audit programme and go for self-improvement. The suggestion of the Quality Division is that every branch would check/examine at least 1 per cent of their total files. The fact that people are being encouraged to participate in programmes that are being set by themselves will enhance self improvement according to the Head of Quality Division. He admitted that, sometimes the branches do not welcome the presence of internal audit because people can get

defensive when their mistakes are pointed out. He further elaborated on the latest approach of his division towards quality control:

Quality group circles are being set up in all branches. The aim is to ensure that, work done meet the desired standard. ... if they themselves partake in this programme we feel that the ownership is theirs. Rather than having the third party coming to check on them, we are getting the branches to accept this concept (self-examination). They will then know their area of weakness and improve to meet the quality standard. The branch will report to HQ biannually. ...Then remedial action can be taken to improve their standards. (S3)

He also strongly believes in the importance of having internal audits:

The idea of internal audit has to exist to ensure that internal controls are there. We had problems, but it all depends on the approach we take, whether we want to be punitive or otherwise, so when you become punitive then they (officers) will resist you. But if you come up with the concept that you want to help them, than it will work. So while needing to be a policeman you also need to be a friend. (S3)

Although, it may be seen that a tight internal audit leads to the issue of mistrust as perceived by the branches, the Quality Division defended that the fact they are seriously looking into the problem with the intention of eliminating the feelings of defensiveness. In this spirit, the head of Quality Division believed that they will become more accepted and the current “distrust will become one of trust.” The course of action for this will be internal self-auditing which places a degree of control back at the branch level. The internal audit team felt that they are actually part of the big group team, and when the Auditor General (Federal Audit) raised matters the whole organisation will be involved in answering the queries. There are two consequences that arise out of these stringent auditing standards, first, it can reduce the organisation’s error rate with the view that mistakes are made as part of the learning process, and second, it can be taken negatively as an indicator of distrust by the employees. Arguably, devolution of responsibility to self-auditing may enhance a sense of professionalism while enabling local understanding of how mistakes are made. In itself this may contribute to the organisation’s learning.

7.2.5 *Knowledge Transfer in MIRB*

The need to keep up with knowledge is inevitable in MIRB because people feel that failure to do so will tarnish their self-image not only in the organisation but also in dealing with taxpayers and clients. The deputy head of a branch highlighted why keeping up with knowledge is vital for technical officers:

... they have to keep up with knowledge or they are at the losing end. Here the officers deal with accountants, qualified agents from big firms representing multinationals and big corporate. So your knowledge have to be greater than theirs. If you are asked a question during your interviews and you could not explain, it will be embarrassing. So the best thing is to keep you up to date. You have to build your image, if you don't understand certain issues get prepared before the interview. (M3)

Keeping up with knowledge in MIRB is associated with change and being able to cope with the external environment. Even at the level of tax officers, this awareness is clearly expressed by many:

The officers should keep up with the knowledge on taxation to keep up with the changing rules and regulations and also the world of business so that they can assess their files with good judgement. (JB017/84)

We have to update our knowledge in order to cope with the changing environment and rapid change of human needs in this developing country. We have to be aware of the business environment in order to detect any fault in reporting tax. (KA008/152)

Learning in MIRB is very important, knowledge must be up to date as well as experience must be treasured in order to tackle the tax practitioners who are usually more advanced in tax planning and the taxpayers who would find ways to avoid tax either legally or illegal. (SY009/181)

The management perceived that with office automation it would further enhance the sharing of knowledge and update the technical staff's knowledge. The implementation of office automation will be interesting as it will have implications

for the management surveillance and communication systems of the organisation, which will be discussed later. A senior member of management of MIRB asserted that:

The other thing that we are looking at is that people should self improve... we are a highly technical department and we will be measured by our technical competency and each officer has a role to play. He must learn by himself, are you satisfied with what you are doing and will you want to further improve yourself? And if you further improve yourself that is a way of career development also. (S3)

They have many years of experience and they are more aware of the issues that they are dealing with. Your constraint is always time because there are a lot of files. Ideally when you are given a file it is good to learn from the file but due to time constraints and large allocation of files, you only attend to what is required. Therefore you are not really digging into the files and learning from prior years of assessment and any submission found in the file, you just don't have the time. (L23 and L31)

However, the attitude of self-improvement in keeping up oneself with knowledge requires intense change not only in individuals attitude but requires a change in the organisational culture.

This will take time to change I honestly think so that it is not just a change but it has to be a change of the total culture (organisation culture). Basically the way I look at it is discipline wise we have the discipline, we have the basic knowledge, it is how we polish these things. (S3)

I still think that knowledge acquiring is two ways, and not just one way. You can't just expect it to come to you but sometimes you need to solicit knowledge, meaning you have to get the information out of the person by your persistence and your questions. That is what I notice with the younger generation (junior officers), they are not all out there to get knowledge but rather preferred to be spoon fed. (M4)

The CEO of MIRB talked about changing the mind-set of the older generation of MIRB, which she finds a difficult task in the short term. However, she is positive that the new breeds of MIRB are more adaptive and open towards learning, which therefore makes it easier to mould them. But the management has to be diplomatic in tackling those people who have been greatly undermined by the major restructuring exercise. The CEO of MIRB felt strongly the need to keep up with

knowledge to enable excellent performance:

For a tax officer our work is not merely mechanical or technical work but it is a knowledge-based job. When you do your tax computation it is just not calculating... but everything you do is with reasons, not just the law, you have to be well versed with the case law to back up your work, to defend and this is not a mere mathematical exercise. ...To be a good tax officer you must have the relevant knowledge and you must read. The law changes because of the economic and political situation and you have to update your self because if you do not learn then you become mechanical. You then do not appreciate the intention of the law. (S1)

Generally, from the interview answers, people are comfortable about sharing knowledge with each other and they are reminded of the importance of sharing their knowledge. Most find there are few cases of people being selfish and keeping knowledge to themselves. Perhaps, the high team spirit has enabled sharing of knowledge to take place.

It is the organisational culture I think because we have always tried to create a team spirit like a family. That concept will help because the inadequacies of one person will be overcome by the adequacies of others. And there is sharing of knowledge and in the trade that we are in, there must be a sense of sharing of knowledge or otherwise none of us learn. (S3)

We usually discuss and bring forward new and unique cases that we come across. We do share. At branch level we have monthly talks giving us updates of new cases and issues relating to our work. (L35)

However, in reality there will always be people who will have their own agenda and likely to hoard knowledge for themselves. Most interviewees agreed that such problems are minor in MIRB:

Yes generally we do share. The technical issue is the same and in a way by sharing you are reaffirming your own opinions. When you share you realise that you only look at one angle of the issue and another person will look at a different angle or give you a broader perspective. In a way it is give and take, which helps you looked at the same issue in a different light. The arguments can be quite complex and not just a simple yes or no. (L31)

You can't really say everyone but the nature of our job is such that you need to share knowledge because each situation is so different and we are only taught the principles. We are dealing with law, which can be subjective and open to many interpretations. There are many circulars. So you need to share knowledge and information before you can be a good assessor. I don't think you can be a good tax officer just by going through the training and doing your work. (M4)

The nature of work and the management strategy in MIRB makes it quite impossible to be individualistic. Setting production targets for individuals as well for the group encourages people to work together towards a common goal. The inability of any member of the group to achieve his/her target will affect the group performance as a whole. Sharing means not only knowledge but also problems within the group. A senior officer in the company branch explained that:

All the group leaders are committed, they want their group to perform and we have the statistics to measure them. We don't have problems in sharing knowledge because the group leader has the responsibility to make sure everybody know what to do. In order to solve problems faster the assessors need to work together. The group will consult the experienced staff or among themselves if there is any problem so it means they will work together. (M3)

Working in a team has facilitated the sharing of knowledge at least within the team and among peers. The next question is how do people share knowledge between team, groups, and across all levels in the organisation? During the interviews, a number of people who have specialised knowledge in the organisation were asked how they would share their knowledge with others in the organisation. Two technical officers in the Specialised Industries of the Company branch and an officer in the International Division who deals with Double Tax Agreements (DTA), talked about documenting their experience in the form of writing a manual for others to learn. The officers in the International Division were also involved in giving talks to all the branches because he said it is the people in MIRB who are the users of Double Taxation Agreements:

Now we are preparing the DTA Manual. It is a combined effort between the Tax Division of Treasury and our Tax division. So this manual will help the future officers in dealing with this issue. In this manual we explain why we deviate from the OECD, why we maintain certain Articles. This manual is written by a group of officers who have done DTA before. We came up with this idea because we find it difficult to understand why previous officers have stuck to a certain position. (L6)

Another officers highlighted how he shared their experience within the organisation:

I am specialising in banking, and my partner in insurance. So any tax officer who wants to know about these industries will consult us. What we are doing now, we have incorporated all the examples of the industries in our desk file. So in future whoever takes our place, they will have the references handy. By doing this the knowledge and experience we have here is put on paper (documented) and we are sharing it with the future generation, where they can make reference or amendments to what we have done so far. (L1 and L33)

The above examples are attempts to make tacit knowledge more explicit and to be able to share their experience across the organisation. People in MIRB referred to one another in the organisation across divisions and units to discuss or clarify any technical issues encountered in their daily job. However, any issues that require decisions of higher authority have to be undertaken according to the proper channels. The implementation of office automation may expand the scope of knowledge sharing, which will be discussed later.

7.2.6 Knowledge Sharing with Stakeholders and Learning Networks

The concept of sharing knowledge is further extended to the stakeholders and tax practitioners. Learning from clients and customers is, as we have seen an important source to MIRB employees. The respondents in the survey were asked how they perceived tax practitioners in terms of tax knowledge. The response were:

I always feel that those tax practitioners are better off than me in terms of tax knowledge. (PK003/20)

Tax practitioners should play a major role in taxpayers education and should be able to facilitate MIRB's needs. (PK019/36)

However, my opinion is that the experts in taxation are the officers of the Inland Revenue Board and not the practitioners outside the IRB. (MK005/42)

Tax practitioner's primary duty is to their clients' interest, not to aid IRB in fulfilling the branch goals. That is no bar in enlarging areas of co-operation and professional co-operation. (MK015/52)

They are still basically business people who are out there to make profits. The more the merrier. (KG002/54)

Tax practitioners work for the taxpayers as their customers and tax officers work for the country's revenue. One has an interest in the best tax planning for clients and the other to check on the compliance of the tax rules. (SY009/181)

Tax practitioners are not helpful, that is they do not stick to their ethic. They are not neutral but always helping tax payers adjusting their income in order for them to pay less tax. (JB004/71)

Some firms have better tax knowledge than others. Some tax practitioners are too aggressive in protecting their client's interest at the expense of giving a true and full view of the position. (IP003/118)

While some of the tax officers have some reservations as to the role of tax practitioners, some give positive comments, which could enhance co-operation and the possibilities of extending the learning network to its stakeholders.

These people should work hand in hand with the MIRB officers, sharing their views, ideas, knowledge etc with a view to creating the best tax system in Malaysia. (AA006/164)

They (tax practitioners) are also a route of learning. Sometimes we do learn from them on certain tax issues. (SY017/189)

Tax practitioner's objections and submissions are sources of inspiration for a closer look at the Act and other literatures. (JB008/75)

These agencies are important and complementary to us because they are the ones who can see our weakness and they can tell us about our weakness. (JB013/80)

It is our duty to learn the job well but they are playing a complementary role in the sense that the more knowledgeable they are, the more they are able to help taxpayers in complying with the law. I will therefore not look at them as competitors. They have a role to play and we also have a role to play. (L7)

Sharing knowledge with stakeholders is a new phenomenon in MIRB, which could lead to the establishment of a wider learning network. On the other hand, the practicality of it is still questionable because MIRB is bounded by legal constraints and certain information is not tradable and *vice versa* and this is also true of the private counterparts who would not disclose the tricks of their trade in their own interest!

I do see them that way. They are actually more of a help to us. They come up the tax budget book faster than we do. If they are well versed, our job becomes much easier because they presented their accounts well. Some of them who come with slip-shod job our work get more difficult.

Tax practitioners are actually the springboards of MIRB work. Our organisation is more of work oriented base. They are competing for clients but here all the files come to us and we are short of staff. The file is already keeping you busy and when we would find that extra time to read and learn. In private organisation they anticipated the problem and they read up. In our case we don't have the time to do that so we only read up when the problem arises. (L31 and L23)

The notion of network learning shifted the traditional role of MIRB as the legitimate taxing authority to a broader role. MIRB now focuses on improving the voluntary compliance of taxpayers. This is interesting because it has shifted the tax officers' role from the traditional one of tax assessor, into coaching and 'educating' taxpayers on how to comply with tax law. People are encouraged to voluntarily come forward and pay their tax rather than being coerced. Tax officers find that the ability to attend the client's needs is part of the job that motivates them to perform in the workplace. The ultimate aim of a learning network is to harness a "learning communities" culture (Richardson, 1995, Kofman and Senge, 1993). As such the learning concept on MIRB has expanded not only on training and encouraging learning in its work force but also into educating the public and establishing learning networks with its stakeholders. A tax officer explained how he learned from them:

Yes we do learn from them. When they make appeals they defend themselves, quote several case laws and they bring out similar cases, which were decided by MIRB previously in their favour. We therefore learn from practitioners how they manage the issues. (L37)

Initially learning networks are created internally among managers and staff from various division and units in MIRB combining efforts and expertise to address certain problems or issues in the organisation. With the recent development, MIRB views tax practitioners especially the big firms such as; PricewaterhouseCoopers, KPMG Peat Marvick, Ernst & Young, and Arthur Anderson as their partners rather than competitors. Some MIRB senior officers also view them as complements. The CEO herself said that:

We see them as partners because we want them to do the right thing as they are out there to help taxpayers to comply. (S1)

Learning is seen as a two way process. A senior manager viewed the tax practitioners as having complementary roles and explained how MIRB learns from them:

I do not see them as our competitors but to have more of a complementary role. We complement each other and we also gain knowledge from them.... We sometimes do not agree with them, but from their arguments and our counter arguments, we actually gain knowledge from them. From the Multinational companies we learned the techniques of tax planning and issues of transfer pricing. Our people can learn through audit. Thus we train our people how to question in order to get information, because these multinational don't lie to us, the accounts are all there, everything is audited. This is what we call creative accounting, it all there and you just have to search for it.. So, it depends on the intelligence of the officers to tackle it, maybe through questionnaires, audit experience and knowledge because everything is there. (M3)

Ideas such as "smart partnership" have been proposed in the organisation, but it is still at an infant stage and more work is needed in this area. A senior manager expressed his opinion on the 'smart partnership' concept:

I don't think you would say that they are better off than us. It is just that they look at tax from a different perspective and the loopholes of it. I fully agree to this 'smart partnership' concept and in fact, it is going on now. I feel that this concept has not been exploited to the fullest. I think more could be done in this area. I disagree with the idea that says we are different from the practitioners out there. I don't think so. (S4)

It will help you improve.... there are so many new things, with computerised and digitalised industries, you have to update yourself. You have to understand the industry. If you are ignorant when you go before a raid you will make a fool of yourself. Taxpayer can see through. When you ask questions you must create an impression that you know how they operate. There may be some areas that you don't understand and it is nothing wrong asking the taxpayer to explain because may be the business was carried out in its usual norms. But again your knowledge is important. (L28)

Part of this partnership programme is to call outside expertise and ask them to give talks and short courses to the MIRB staff and at the same time MIRB officers would give public lectures as and when requested by these private sectors firms. MIRB took the initiative to call their private counterpart to deliver talks and share knowledge but the question is how much are the practitioners willing to share their 'business tricks'. Therefore, some reservations are made in the process of learning from these tax practitioners:

...how much they deliver to us is a big question mark!. The quantum they give us cannot be determined, but so far our invitation have not been rejected...we sometimes prefer to call university lecturers ... because they tend not to hide knowledge. They will not tell you everything. (M3)

Other network learning established by MIRB at international and regional level, is by being a member of tax administrators conglomerates such as the Commonwealth Association of Tax Administrators (CATA), Study Group on Asian Tax Administration and Research (SAGATA) and actively participate in programmes and courses conducted by OECD. These organisations, especially SAGATA have been useful in providing an appropriate venue for co-operation and exchanging of information in taxation. It is one of the active groups in the Asia-Pacific region

represented by countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Singapore, Thailand, Indonesia, Korea, Singapore, Philippines and Malaysia. In each conference, all participating countries would present their working papers and each country learns from each other to improve their own system.

7.3 Human Nature, Intelligence and Motivation

The assumptions in the West that only a few at the top of the bureaucracy were considered sufficiently intelligent (Brown and Lauder, 2001) holds true even in Malaysia. Moulded from the British Colonial Model in the 18th century to the early 20th century (Yusuf, 1994) the top bureaucrats in Malaysia represent the elite of Malaysian government who makes various policies to run the government departments and agencies, while the rest remain to implement the policy. However, today with the impact of globalisation (Tanzi, 2000) and Information Technology (IT) breakthrough, we have begun to see the breaking down of these assumptions.

In MIRB, the inability of the older generation of the organisation to keep up with the fast growing pace of IT has to be matched by the young and new recruits who bring skills, especially in IT. These are skills which the senior managers do not have access to in their college days. As a result of this, MIRB would merge junior officers with the senior person in a team where contemporary problems of the organisation need to be addressed. This will in future enhance collective intelligence in the organisation by giving them more discretion to develop knowledge and innovate collectively.

7.3.1 *Team Learning*

Teamwork creates relationships within MIRB and it also enables the sharing of responsibilities. It is positively challenging because people have to think for each other in solving problems and they have to remain open for further expansion of their concepts or ideas. In the Assessment, Collection, and Company branches people are organised into groups of 10-15 people.

You need to learn not just about tax but there are other things that are relevant to my job. I learn for my job and personal development.
(L3)

People work to achieve individual as well as group targets set. A group leader who is of equal rank with the other group members facilitates the group, act as the spokesman of the group and communicate with senior management at branch level. This lower level management of the organisation is very flexible in the sense that group leaders may be changed at the prerogative of the management at the branch level. The position as a group leader or deputy group leader has no monetary bearing, it is just an extra job with responsibilities which the management claim is the training ground of leadership and management for the technical officers.

It is our culture because even in our daily work we are already organised as a team. In audit cases we work as a team because it may be dangerous to work alone and also on moral grounds. (L22)

Teamwork as indicated in the previous chapter represented a source of learning in MIRB and to some it is a source of job satisfaction. A senior officer reflecting her previous experience in teamwork noted that:

When I came in the 1970's all the groups were already there and we competed among different groups to ensure production target were met. It is a culture, it is already there. I like that feeling to be part of the group and having to clear files and making sure that the production target are met on time. We never have to work for individuals but more for the group. (M4)

These views are supported by comments of the senior managers who said that:

In MIRB it is very difficult not to work as a team especially when it come to audit and investigation...It is through this teamwork we learn and share knowledge. It combines people of different skills and that makes the success of the team. (S3)

Working as a team ensures that they could share knowledge between the experienced officers and the new ones, so that they can learn from each other. In investigation work various skills are required to accomplish a task so you find that people are good at certain aspects and getting them together will facilitate learning. (S2)

In a casual conversation during my observation with the investigation team, an Investigation Officer admitted that:

I am not very good in my accounting knowledge but my tactic in investigation is more of persuasion.... I use psychology to persuade taxpayers to co-operate. I leave the accounting part to my other team-mates who are good in it.
(Eo4)

From the interviews and observation that I have conducted, MIRB's employees exhibited the flexibility and collective spirit of working in teams no matter what the size of the team may be. Team spirit is high and everyone supports one another to make the team successful.

.... we are trying to create a culture where people work together in groups. What we feel is that individually you can do something but is better to have teamwork in whatever you do. In the concept of teamwork we are also practising the dissemination of knowledge. Because we feel that here people who are experienced should generate experience and pass it to others. (S3)

An interesting illustration of how team learning took place in reality was observable during my visit to a branch of MIRB away from the city of Kuala Lumpur. In the event observed, a junior officer who was in service for 8 years became a checker for a senior officer (age 52 years old) who has served the organisation for 31 years. The junior was actually coaching the senior officer in assessing a company's file. In an informal interview with the senior officer, he admitted that although he had served

the organisation for 31 years, most of his experience was in investigation and thus he had very little experience dealing with companies' cases. In another situation (audit observation), the role changed, the senior officer now took the role of coaching the team who were mostly juniors and also his checker. The senior officer was discreetly telling the junior team leader what questions to ask the taxpayers and which item of the accounts to focus on.¹ Another senior manager reflected on his experience of 30 years ago, when he first joined the organisation:

Even in the 1970s and 80s people who were experienced in their work become group leaders and coaches. In 1970s people supervising my work was not necessary grade 'A' officers but they were the group leaders who could be the lower level grade of officers but these people had the knowledge and they imparted the knowledge. They trained people with them. (S3)

He further added that:

....if you go back to history right from the beginning people with experience in this organisation tried to impart knowledge to people who were with them or people in the organisation. (S3)

Another case to illustrate cross hierarchy learning concerns the Assistant Director General (top level management of MIRB) who was present on the day I observed the Investigation team at work. She had just been promoted in the division and when asked why she had joined the group that day, she admitted that she had to learn from the team on the ground. In line with Schein's (1996) ideas on flexibility of roles, the ability to change position when working in a team and to learn from each other is an indicator of vertical learning across the hierarchy. In observing other teams in MIRB, I found similar examples.

¹ This is base on the observation notes that I made during my visit and observing the team in one of the branches.

However, there is a danger of focusing excessively on teamwork because the management may tend to neglect individual needs and welfare in the organisation.

One of the senior officers gave an interesting comment on teamwork:

This organisation has a lot of teamwork. So when we do work in a team, you sometimes forget about individuals. You only think of all the various groups in the division and we look at the performance in the group... the individuals are sometimes forgotten in a way. (S3)

This raised questions about individual motivation and job satisfaction at MIRB.

7.3.2 Motivation and Job Satisfaction

Motivation is an inner drive, which makes people expend effort to achieve a given objective. Although stimulated by external factors such as the challenge of the tasks, the need to earn a living or the need to enjoy oneself or by fear, it is the strength of the inner drive rather than external pull that determines the quality of the outcome (Lovell, 1994).

It has been an interesting question to ask MIRB's staff as to what motivates them in the workplace. A range of answers was given, such as a sense of responsibility, supportive superiors, interesting job, comfortable position, religious obligation, an opportunity to learn and many more. A senior officer commented that he felt it was very important that people working with him are happy.

To me a workplace is not only where you earn your living, but a place where you make friends and therefore it must be a place where they are happy to be in or else this will affect their productivity badly. (S4)

A retiring tax officer expressed his concern for the lack of career development in MIRB, which is likely to dampen employees' motivation.

I would not be able to talk for myself as I have been working in many organisations. I don't have many more years to go but it is a pity for the younger ones who have a long way to go. I don't know how many

will be promoted and how many will be left at where they are before they retire or they may leave the service.(L7)

I was very frustrated with the system in this organisation. Promotion is very limited, chances are slim because they (management) still hang on to the idea that seniority is the best criteria for consideration in promoting an officer to a higher position. (PK003/20)

With the work pressure, the frequent visits by taxpayers or their agents and with targets to achieve, one has really got to find a way to motivate oneself to go through this hectic working environment. It is a common scene in most branches of MIRB where people are naturally glued to their chairs, concentrating on their work and communication with peers is at a minimum. Most of the assessment jobs are still manually done and the number of taxpayers keeps on increasing each year and the tax officer finds their allocation of files increasing steadily.

With excessive workload and pressure the respondents were asked to write what motivates them at the workplace. A range of answers was given as to what motivated or demotivated them.

A job well done always give me a sense of satisfaction so I always give my best shot at my workplace even though time is a constraint. (MK007/44)

I like my job and my teamwork. (PP001/96)

I feel satisfied when I am able to solve difficult cases that challenges my technical knowledge. (PP003/98)

The working environment is conducive and my subordinates are co-operative, willing to learn and intelligent. (KK004/4)

Environment and spirit of camaraderie which is conducive. (PP018/113)

Good teamwork motivates me in performing. (IP003/118)

Relationship and co-operation with co-workers. (CH005/131)

I do my best in terms of work and derive some kind of job satisfaction and fulfilment. (SY010/182)

The main reason is that I feel I am doing a service to the taxpayers to calculate their tax as accurately as possible and to solve any problems that arise. Not working hard and accumulating arrears of work would lead to further problems for the taxpayers, causing anxiety and worry for them. I am not motivated for career development because as a woman, a promotion would mean a transfer and further stress. I am happy where I am. (SR008/144)

Working environment and peer group make working life interesting and exciting. (SY001/173)

Although the above tax officers gave, positive responses as to what motivated them in workplace there are also some who gave negative answers as to why they were not motivated to perform. From their answers in the questionnaires these issues were further explored in the interviews.

I'm a self-motivated person, I don't really need external motivation. But I found a lot of demotivating factors around here. (PG001/88)

It depends where and which section you are working in. Some officers are 'jailed' in a 'non productive' section for 25 years or more while others working in a productive section becomes stale after a long period in one place. "A motivated workplace becomes a graveyard." Work volume is unbearable. (KK006/6)

I am demotivated by the lack of emphasis on staff welfare. (PK007/24)

Not really motivated. (PK010/27)

When I work I do it with passion. Passion is sometimes dampened when unfairness prevails. (PK013/30)

I don't have motivation here. (Respondent have served MIRB for 14years) (JBo04/71)

After more than 15 years in the same grade, there is absolutely no motivation left and morale is at its lowest ebb. (JBo16/83)

Unequal opportunity may thwart motivation. (PP008/103)

The problem with MIRB is that the management hasn't had any vision to promote or develop the career path for the staff. They only think of themselves. (SY017/189)

Most of the respondents found their job interesting and again team spirit and friends seemed to be the popular motivating factor. This is not surprising as Lane's (1991) insight on personal development that self esteem and intrinsic rewards are the motivating factors that drive people to learn in an organisation holds true in MIRB. In a personal interview with a senior officer, she revealed how she challenges herself in performing her job:

I am a very self-motivated person. So I don't want to comment on what is going on outside me because it is so easy to find fault with the system. When I can, I do raise my concerns even in a formal environment, I do. By large over the years you realise that your comments may not be taken in a good light so you just draw back. And at the end of the day I enjoy doing things that challenge me. For example if they gave me a little job outside my duty list, I may wonder why but then I try to read up and challenge myself. (M4)

She further added that:

I don't think I am completely anti the system because the system is good in so many ways and it has developed me. There are some flaws and there will be a time that they will be addressed but you can't do it overnight. (M4)

She is not the only person in MIRB who gets motivated by challenging herself, there were others who talked on how they liked to challenge themselves especially when dealing with difficult cases. People also find that they enjoy dealing with taxpayers and helping them to comply with the system. Many believed that their knowledge and experience in taxation is useful. The learning process has also in many ways contributed to their personal development and growth.

...I will finish my career here. I'm happy with MIRB. Especially in the company branch, I get the job satisfaction... as time goes by, I think I gained more experience in Company compared to Training. I use my experience in the Training division to teach people in the Company Branch. (M3)

A group of tax officers in the Company Branch expressed their satisfaction to be working in the branch itself. They viewed themselves as the elite group of the organisation because they deal with prestigious public listed companies and

multinational corporations. They felt that their work leads to higher levels of learning in the organisation and their experiences in a Company's Branch are valuable outside the organisation.

The technical officers in the Assessment Branch asserted that they have to learn a lot in this organisation because the job requires them to keep up with the happenings in the economic and business world. Teamwork, sharing problems in a group and a feeling of a sense of belonging to a group motivates these officers. For the tax officers working in the Investigation it is the challenges that they face in their daily job that motivates them. Although, they admitted that it is the most stressful job in the organisation, the moment of joy is when they were able to 'break' their case. An investigation officer expressed how teamwork has motivated her:

I like it here. Here it is teamwork. There is a lot of what you call comrade feeling. You stand for each other, we look up to each other and we have fun times together. It is very different from other divisions. (L28)

7.4 Power, Control and Co-ordination

Power as described by Weber (1948) relevant to bureaucracy is the legal authority, which a leader attains. The traditional hierarchical structure within MIRB is still very strong and power structures remain largely unchallenged. Leaders frequently champion the words "we empower our employees", but the real test is how much they are willing to share or delegate powers with the others in the organisation.

Meetings are the opportunity for bringing multiple perspectives on certain issues/problems in the organisation. Although the lower level of staff in the organisation felt that they are not given sufficient chance to voice their opinions, the

view from the group leaders, middle and upper management was different. In one of the branches, a middle manager expressed how open and receptive she was towards new ideas while the technical officers expressed in most of the interviews the view that often their ideas are not taken seriously by their group leader or management at branch level. Opinions and ideas are welcomed, but decision making is related to responsibility and accountability and it therefore remains the prerogative of higher authority. Hierarchy is a barrier to learning:

I think there is a barrier to learning because you are not given the independence in making decision. So you don't take it seriously because there will be someone who is going to check it. But the benefit and advantage of this system is the check and balance. That is the main thing. Because our organisation is so vulnerable and all kinds of allegation can be made about us, so there is always a check and balance. You are not alone in making decisions. So now the question that may come in is that some people will say that you don't trust the officers. (M3)

The above statement indicates that teams in MIRB are not self-designing teams (Cressey and Kelleher, 1999) which allows flexibility and full autonomy to the team members to make decisions. This is common in any bureaucratic organisation.

I think it is better because when you tear down the level of supervision, you save time and increase the speed of decision making. But you have to empower the officers to make decisions. You can have a cut off level, where for example they can sign for RM500,000 and below. They can do it but we must have internal audits. (M3)

One of the senior management commented that at top level there are regular monthly meetings and invariably there are two annual conferences which bring senior management at headquarters level and all the 36 heads of branches and 15 heads of Investigation Centres together to discuss matters of common interest. However he noted that:

...matters of common interest are discussed, directions are given and people talked. It is then the question of how well the chairman received what you say and it is also the question of how well individuals are prepared to say what they wants. It all depends on the

people who form the meetings. Generally I think management have been very receptive to ideas. I don't think they have rejected anything no doubt directions are given and decisions are finally made, there is a hearing and it depends on the individual on how well he participates. Is he going to be a passenger in the meeting or is he going to be a participant? What I am trying to impress on you is that, avenues are there so it depends on how well one uses them. (S3)

Another senior manager also commented on how he has tried to deliver his ideas in meetings and they have not been well received:

Well in meetings I try to give my ideas but if they don't care to give a damn and not like what I say, well I might as well shut up. I am going to retire, why should I jeopardise myself....in this organisation you have to be careful in expressing your ideas and to whom you talk to.(S4)

Yes...of course within the confinement of my jurisdiction. I can't go beyond that but if I want to express a point of view I am free to do so. At the end of the day, what I submit to my boss, he may want to disagree with me, but that's my view and it goes down in writing. It does not mean that I have to follow his point of view.(M4)

Evidence of his claim can be supported by the fact that many task forces and committees are set up in MIRB to address issues and problems in the organisation. It is through this *ad-hoc* system that people share their ideas and views. These committees are represented by people from various units and divisions in the organisation who have certain expertise and experience. However, the senior officer in the organisation would usually chair these teams set at headquarters level. The senior policy maker of MIRB confirmed the key point when she said that:

When it comes to work process and practice, we have to listen to the people down there, they are on the ground and they know best, But when it come to policy decisions we don't consult them. (S1)

From the statement above it is obvious that the policies in MIRB are compartmentalised. In MIRB, power is shared to the extent of making decisions on operational issues such as work process and practice but the policy making in MIRB still lies in the hands of the few. Power relationships in an organisation are closely intertwined with the structure of the organisation. The 'corporatisation' of MIRB in

many ways can be seen as the attempt of the organisation to break away from its traditional bureaucratic roles into a more organic form of organisation to meet the current challenges. This is interesting as the tension remains between a culture based on hierarchy and the desire for a more organic flatter organisation.

In the survey, the data showed that the younger generation demand for more trust and sharing of power as compared to the older generation. As such, tension arises between these two groups and this indicates that there are strongly biased towards breaking away from the traditional culture. The tax officers commented about the organisational structure:

This is a very sensitive issue but I think there are too many levels.
(L37)

I think the many level of hierarchy is for the purpose of monitoring so that there is no abuse of power. As you know that MIRB is so exposed to various critics of the public. (L4)

One of the senior officers in the interview, gave strong comments on how the structural problems in MIRB had caused major problem for the promotion of staff and hence also resulted in the problem of imparting knowledge or even retaining those who are knowledgeable.

I think our major challenge is the structural problem. In my opinion this structure has not changed since I joined the service. Our officers are also quitting from this department because they cannot see their career path clearly. I think the hierarchical structure of the organisation does not give wider chances for promotion. This therefore results in the problem of failure to impart knowledge and retaining knowledgeable people in the organisation. (S4)

In the above statement our hypothesis about the barriers to learning are confirmed. However, considering that hierarchical structure of the society has deeply penetrated the organisation, it is unlikely that hierarchy can be completely abandoned in any Malaysian organisation in general and MIRB specifically. The

success of MIRB in becoming a learning organisation is to reconcile the needs to maintain hierarchy with greater flexibility for the purpose of learning. The quantitative data showed that MIRB is flexible enough to allow the change of roles at horizontal level, and while cases of vertical flexibility were observed these were in relation to technical knowledge and learning not policy.

If we looked at the EDB of Singapore (Schein, 1996) hierarchy has been practised in the organisation without much difficulty and yet the flexibility of roles remains fluid. This very much contrasts with the Western form of organisation where hierarchy is regarded more as an unwelcome trait of an organisation. In Malaysia, as the younger generation of the society becomes more exposed to Western education, the breaking down of this traditional value is becoming more transparent each day. However, getting people to talk on the subject of power devolution in this organisation was the most difficult part of the study.

7.5 Management-Employee Relationships

In relation to management issues, there are three areas covered by this chapter: career development, communication and trust in the organisation. These three factors are seen to be crucial if the organisation wants to promote learning by building a better relationship. The CEO was asked as to what would be the best management style for MIRB:

It is very subjective to say which style is the best because everyone or every leader has their own styles. What is more important to me is that the style must give you results. What any DG would like to see is that the tax is collected in the most efficient method, fairest to taxpayer and at the same time collect what is due to the government. When you talk about management style it all depends on your background, your knowledge, your own style and what ever you have learnt from the superiors, the management book you have read and it is sometimes based on trial and error. But I have worked with 5 DGs

and each of them has their own style. But what I would like to stress is, everyone of them had in their mind that they have to collect the most tax for the government. Because this is how we are measured, how effective we are. If we fail to do this it means we have failed in our administration.(S1)

She argued that what counts most in MIRB is performance regardless of whatever style of management a leader practices. This reflected MIRB, as a very performance oriented organisation where regardless of problems it encounters a certain level of performance has to be achieved. As discussed in Chapter 2, the career structure of MIRB's staff was marked by significant changes, which do have implications for the employees. Most people find that they will be stuck in their present grade for their careers in MIRB. A tax officer, who was affected by the restructuring in 1992, gave a strong comment when asked about career development in MIRB. She represents one of those technical officers in MIRB who became the scapegoat of the system:

To tell the truth, I am not concerned about the career development. I think I am a deadwood. I have served for 20 years and I don't see I am getting anywhere. To complete the advanced course takes at least 4 years. By that time I'll be 47 and I probably would opt for retirement. So I just do my best, that is it. (L10)

Although, no official statistics was available on the number of MIRB's staff leaving the organisation, it is an issue of concern for a number of senior managers. In the interviews with them, they voiced their concerns but they felt that the 'brain drain' is not at a critical level. A senior officer who has served the organisation for more than 20 years gave his opinion:

...there is no clear career path for the tax officers and as a result a number of our staff even in senior posts leave the organisation and this is very sad. (S4)

If the organisation gives its attention to the career development of the staff and human resource aspect, I am positive that people are unlikely to leave the organisation. Personally, to me, loyalty to an organisation is important. After I have been in this organisation for a while I do feel a sense of belonging and devotion to the organisation. But the management has to ensure that our career development and welfare is taken care of. People will leave no matter how loyal they are if they see that the organisation does not serve their need anymore. (L36)

One of the senior management in MIRB gave a more positive comment on this issue:

...you can't stop any one from leaving. If you look back and reflect at five years back when most people left the organisation, we thought that there is going to be a vacuum but if you looked at the performance over the last five years we are better than before. Some people said that it is possible because the economy was good but I think it is not just the economy. I believe it is peoples' contributions, the people who took over that have made a difference. (S3)

The management of MIRB is now more sensitive towards the human resource development of their staff. A committee was set up to look into the matter and the CEO in an interview with the researcher said that they would be looking at the problem in a more formalised manner. A substantial number of MIRB's staff are academically over qualified for the job. The basic entry requirement for the job as a tax officer is a basic degree, but many possessed a second degree or are in the process of pursuing one. The organisation itself, each year, awards scholarships to staff for higher education in various disciplines locally and abroad. MIRB believes in having an educated work force, which they feel, will enhance the image of the organisation and the quality of their officers. They also believed that it is part of the career development of the staff and the organisation's future investment. A top manager of MIRB gave positive evidence on career development in MIRB:

... In the 80's and 90's we have more people who have done post graduate courses and we hope in time they will form the core group that will bring changes to the organisation. Then we will have people who are academically qualified not necessarily in taxation but also in other field and we hope they will form the succession group. So we have lots of people who have career development through that way. (S3)

Despite the dissatisfaction in their career development in the organisation many find that they have obtained job satisfaction in many ways which motivate them to keep on performing in the workplace. Job satisfaction does not only rely on monetary incentives but there are many other contributing factors. Being able to

communicate effectively the vision of the leaders to all members would enhance an open and free flow of information in the organisation.

7.5.1 *Communication*

Learning is essentially one aspect of communication. Zakaria (1996) in his research identified the communication problem in MIRB as largely influenced by management issues, external environmental factors and cultural issues. It was also found that disagreements existed between management and employees over issues of decision making, planning, work process and human resources. The management in MIRB still preserves the concept of going through proper channels in term of its communication. In one sense this creates an over formalisation in their communication process and also slows down the speed of communication. Getting across information from one unit to another still involves countless paperwork instead of using technology.

A technical officer expressed how she envies the speed of communication in private organisations, while in MIRB e-mail service is restricted only to the senior management level. Office automation has been discussed for quite a while, guidelines have been drafted and yet the implementation has not materialised. In one of the rules stipulated in the guideline for the use and application of office automation, it stated:

...that the procedure of interacting and communicating with senior officers of peers or subordinates must be observed at all times. For example, the arrangement of names in messages must follow the seniority of the officers and through proper channel. (Translation from the circular: Arahan Operasi Bil. 6/1998)

A tax officer who is a group leader is critical!

The policy makers are not fast enough in disseminating the information to us. They should at least quickly brief us what are the rationales of introducing some amendments in the tax law. If you know the rationales we are able to work on it better (L23)

The communication problems in MIRB can create barriers in vertical learning. A group of tax officers interviewed commented on the communication process in MIRB:

The way I see it, MIRB is more of top-down communication. Very rarely do we have two way communications. Sometimes the top management refuses to listen to the people down below... just because they have a lot of experience that does not mean that the ideas of the younger officers are irrelevant. The attitude of the senior management has to change, to bring about changes in this organisation. (L13, L32 and L3)

When further asked how they would express their grievances if they were not happy with the management, cynically they said that:

We back bite...(everyone laughs) I'm joking. But basically we express our dissatisfaction among ourselves. It is very difficult to talk to the people up there. We depend on formal meetings with our superiors but as I said the communication is more one way. (L32/L3/L13)

At the rate of development in Malaysian Information Technology, the impact on MIRB is clearly going to be very significant. Relying on traditional ways of doing things are not suitable anymore. The criticism frequently faced by the organisation in terms of its speed and efficient service are often a source of public discussion. A member of the public who wrote in a newspaper column, that the 'corporatisation' of MIRB has not change the quality of service provided by MIRB (The Star, 1998). Introducing technology in organisations requires trust from management that employees will not abuse the system. Indeed trust is the underlying principle of all affairs in organisation and being disciplined and responsible employees, will in itself be a way of protecting the system.

7.5.2 Trust

The theory of social capital has been discussed extensively in chapter 4, as this factor is germane in developing favourable conditions for learning and a learning organisation. Social capital refers in part to trust and reciprocity between people in organisations, which enables them to collaborate. It is reciprocal in the sense that employees provide loyalty, conformity and skill in exchange for job security, wage increases and the prospect of promotion (Herriot et al., 1998). In the open-ended sections of the questionnaires, when the respondents were asked to describe the level of trust in their unit/division/branch, the answers were somewhat a mix of both extremes. Here are some of the answers given:

The management will not back you whenever you are in trouble with the customers, that is the taxpayers....for example the management allow you to decide on anything but if things get worse, you have to face it personally. (PK003/20)

Assessors are not given any trust in handling approval of any repayment cases or able to reduce tax cases. Even signing certified copies of documents are only allowed to senior officers. Hence I personally think that there is no trust from the top management towards the officers. (PK012/29)

At a level deemed necessary for work to go on. Beyond that a lot depends on a number of factors including rank, background, loyalties, race, religion and other personal bias. (KG007/59)

No trust. (IK004/66)

The level of trust is very low. (JB017/84)

"Never trust others" The phrase we inherited and proud of it forever. (PG001/88)

Own discretion subject to the interpretation of the Act. (PP001/96)

Top management never trusts their staff. (PP016/111)

Management should trust their officers, as there would be dissatisfactions when we do our jobs in good faith and people keep being suspicious of us. (IP002/117)

There is only partial trust granted to each officer as there is always check and balance in the system, such as checking by supervisors as well as internal and external auditors.(SY010/182)

Not much as very often threat of disciplinary action will be taken. (KA009/153)

The officers work independently but are at all times subject to strict discipline. (AA006/164)

The general responses from the open ended questions showed that there were obviously some problems of trust in MIRB, where people generally tend to associate trust and the surveillance system in the organisation. On the other hand, there were tax officers who felt that the level of trust given is sufficient within the legal framework and excessive trust may lead to abuse of power.

Absolute trust is given subject to our limitation and authority as laid down in the official guidelines. (PG004/91)

Good. Giving too much autonomy and discretion will lead to discrepancies or irrationalities in procedures and is bad for the organisation as a whole. (PP002/97)

The pattern of their responses could be taken as a reliable indicator because respondents came from various branches from all over the country and yet the responses were consistent. This issue was further investigated in the interview with the tax officers, middle management and senior management from offices close to headquarters. Yet the second quote also pointed out the dilemma for a government agency like MIRB. Idiosyncrasies in procedure would not be to treat like cases equally and could lead to injustice.

Yet the majority of MIRB's officers felt that they were given the autonomy and trust to perform their job. Many would not want for more nor less, as their understanding of discretion and autonomy means to be entrusted within the legal framework. So

trust and responsibility go hand in hand. The people interviewed, expressed what they understood about the level of discretion entrusted to them:

I am very liberal, all officers and staff in this branch are trustworthy except in rare cases where we see that they are doubtful. As long as they are trustworthy I give them full discretion according to their level. (S4)

I think you are bound by the provision of the Act and you cannot go beyond that. Of course there are grey areas and in cases where they are not sure, they would have to make a submission. It goes from the group leader to the floor manager. (L23 and L31)

I think it is sufficient. Discretion is given within the legal framework. Some limitations are imposed on the officers as a protection. (L37)

Sometime you are limited by procedures. So you have to exercise your discretion within the legal framework. But sometimes even if the law does not allow, I use other sources of reference such as the Director General guide lines, case law to justify my action and I note it down on the file why I do so. The law sometimes only gives a very rough guide but you can decide on the merits of the case. At first my superior rejected my computation and I justified my action so my superior accepted them. (L22)

Many senior management found it difficult if they do not trust their subordinates and after all there is no reason to do so. MIRB is known for its well-disciplined staff and the organisation has been very clean in terms of bribery, corruption or any means of abusing power. The top management in MIRB described the discipline of the work force in MIRB:

...We have to look back at the history where former leaders have been emphasising tight discipline and things have continued since then. You find the staffs themselves are mostly very dedicated, that you do not have to enforce rules on them. (S4)

You have to trust them. You don't have time to monitor them. You must have faith in them, you can't be checking on them all the time. (L23 and L31)

One of the technical officers expressed her confusion as to how the management treats the word 'trust':

We are trusted but at times the management has imposed certain restrictions, which I think, makes work difficult. For example, in

accessing the data from the National Registration Department, they only allow certain officers to access and everyone has to go through the person because only one/two persons know the password. I don't understand why can't the management give the Machine Operators access to the database because after all they are handling or having access to the taxpayer database. In a way this shows a sign of not trusting the staff fully. In MIRB, you trust, yet you don't trust and at times we don't see the rationale of doing things. I think there should not be any restriction in having information if they (senior management) trust the staff. (L10)

Under prevailing circumstances in MIRB, a high level of surveillance and monitoring practised in the organisation has the tendency to erode trust. The surveillance was not in the form of physical monitoring, although in some of the units/division such practice prevails, but it was more of control in the form of performance monitoring. Fox (1974) stressed that giving employees more discretion in their work can accelerate trust in organisations.

This flexibility would enhance individuals to learn and develop new areas of expertise or innovate. However, in the case of MIRB, generally officers were quite happy with the level of discretion they are able to exercise, which is within the legal framework. This is not peculiar to bureaucratic organisations because employees want some form of protection and they are also accountable to the higher authority and the public. With delicate issues of transparency and accountability in question, not only the senior management but also employees are concerned that they do not go beyond the rules. In such circumstances learning to innovate would be more problematic because people are averse to taking the risk of doing things differently. Clearly there is a tension here which needs to be managed.

7.6 Summary

From the data analysis we can summarise the issues which are critical to MIRB. The first issue, would be the problem of power devolution that needs to be addressed if learning is to be extended horizontally and vertically. The problem of drawing a sharp boundary between higher level policy making and operational policy involving work processes should be minimised so that problems are seen more in a holistic manner rather than compartmentalised. In reality, one problem actually leads to another and as such the technical or operational problem faced by the tax officers at the lowest level will lead to policy formulation at the higher level of the organisation. The possibility of envisaging the two coming together will enhance learning vertically. Improving communication processes in the organisation would help to build trust in the organisation. Addressing the career development of the staff and developing appropriate performance appraisal measures would help to manage the tension between risk aversion and learning by opening up greater space for learning which involves reflection and innovation. Nevertheless, MIRB also has its strong points, which can strengthen the foundations for building a learning organisation.

Finally, the point that we are arriving at is the question of whether MIRB could be a learning organisation in the future given all the problems and tensions that we have observed from the data analysis? Dealing with these tensions would require MIRB to embrace a profound change in its organisational culture and be more receptive to changes. The final Chapter will draw the conclusion of this thesis in relation to the problems of MIRB, literature and data evidence.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to draw together the themes presented in the earlier chapters, and to present a view of the possibilities of creating a learning organisation in MIRB. A learning organisation is not an end in itself. However, learning in MIRB is one of variable processes although it is not linked to any specific learning organisation philosophy or understanding. Regardless of which perspective one takes on learning organisations, Garavan (1997) has emphasised that the central conundrum of the learning organisation concept is the issue of whether it can be engineered. As such the relevant issue in this research is whether MIRB is able to manage the learning of its members more effectively and that relates to how close MIRB can approximate to a learning organisation. A key question that has been explored in this thesis is the degree to which it is viable, given MIRB's cultural context, history and bureaucratic nature, for the organisation to approximate to a model of a learning organisation.

The theory of bureaucracy, social capital theory, organisational theory, transaction cost theory and learning organisation theories have all been brought to bear on this issue. The framework (table 4.1) brought out key dimensions of learning organisations in contrast to bureaucracies that have been interrogated in this thesis. We have proposed that issues such as culture (Schein, 1996; Trompenaars and Turner, 1993), trust (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1997) and power devolution (Zuboff, 1988) are central to building a learning organisation.

Although, many 'Gurus' of learning organisations offer a 'checklist' of what a learning organisation might constitute, they typically miss the fact that organisations are heavily influenced by cultural elements (Schein 1984, 1996; Trompenaars and Turners, 1993). Hence, developing MIRB into a learning organisation is not about totally changing the organisation structure, abolishing hierarchies and following 'blueprints' but rather reconciling and adapting the concept within the limitations of culture and tradition.

The Economic Development Board of Singapore (EDB) (Schein, 1996) represents the clearest example of a learning organisation where in the Asian setting it is possible, to reconcile hierarchies with flexibility. The success of the EDB in managing these tensions between the Western ideals of a learning organisation and the distinct cultural features of organisations in the East could provide a significant model for Malaysia or any Asian organisation in general. We will now look at MIRB and to what extent it has already moved towards a learning organisation.

8.2 To What Extent has MIRB Moved towards Becoming Learning Organisation?

To answer this question we have to look at this research in a synergistic way by bringing together the background literature and empirical data to come to a conclusion. Following the consistent framework established in this thesis, we will again use the same framework developed in Chapter 4. In this discussion there may be some reiteration of data, which is vital to our understanding.

8.2.1 *Knowledge and Learning*

Knowledge, learning and innovation as we have discussed in Chapter 3 are considered difficult to develop in bureaucracies. The rational model of bureaucracy (Weber, 1947) recognises the superiority of technical knowledge and knowledge of concrete facts within the organisation. Because the knowledge involved is merely routinised tasks, rules and precedents, it is argued that it is difficult for innovation to occur. Thompson (1972) argued that bureaucracy create specific units in organisation to generate innovation and this therefore leads to what Morgan (1997) has called fragmented thoughts and action. However, Mintzberg's (1979) notion of professional bureaucracy, and MIRB can be categorised as one that is different from the typical machine bureaucracy. Although, professional bureaucracy can have a flatter structure and professional associations outside the organisation determining its standards, it is still considered difficult for innovation and learning to occur.

Knowledge as it applies to MIRB is about making judgements, which are routinely applied, in the daily work of the tax officers. This type of knowledge as Spender (1996) described is located in the collective tacit experiences, which can be shared through situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991) within the social context. The data showed that sharing of knowledge in MIRB is mostly done informally through interaction among peers and activities such as investigation and audit. These activities involved tacit learning, as highlighted in an interview with one of the tax officers, should encompasses analytical and interpretive skills and hence promote innovation in solving problems. Tax officers do attempt to make implicit or tacit knowledge more explicit so that it is shared across the organisation. Such good practice will have a positive impact on the organisation's learning. The observation data during the investigation and audit activities offer convincing evidence of how

the sharing of knowledge and teamwork takes place in action. Translating tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge is difficult as Polyani (1966; 4) emphasised that “we can know more that we can tell.” The strong teamwork and sense of sharing knowledge showed by members of MIRB indicates that tacit knowledge is being transferred and indeed this is the strength of the organisation.

Handy (1993) introduced the concept of team learning, while Pedler *et al* (1997) extended it to stakeholders. In relation to the flaws of professional bureaucracy, as noted by Mintzberg, where the standards are determined by professional associations outside the organisation, the introduction of network learning with professionals would generate a more productive learning environment for MIRB. In dealing with team learning, the survey showed that most of the tax officers agreed that it is an important avenue of learning for them. In fact, even in the higher levels of MIRB officials, they strongly felt that MIRB do not have problem with sharing knowledge and working as a team. The flexibility of changing roles was shown on two occasions where in an audit activity, the senior officer was supervised by his junior officer who acted as a coach and leader. In another instance, a top ranking officer at headquarters level went to an investigation site to learn from the team. This is evidence of vertical and horizontal learning in the organisation that provides a foundation towards building a learning organisation.

However, contradictions can arise in the issues of sharing knowledge with stakeholders. It is tradition that tax practitioners are seen to be the other side of the fence and all aspects of interaction with them are treated with caution. There was a range of opinions as to whether tax officers viewed tax practitioners as complements, competitors or partners. To a certain extent, MIRB is still slanted by the parochial traditional concept of keeping knowledge or ‘tricks of the trade’ to

itself. However, the corporatisation of MIRB have in many ways changed the organisation in its approach to its stakeholders. Both the questionnaire and interview data showed that many of the tax officers and the senior management of MIRB have a positive outlook towards tax practitioners. The CEO and senior management highlighted the potentials of having 'giant' tax practitioners and their conglomerates as partners in a network of learning and co-operation. However, this relationship has to be further worked out to benefit both parties. For MIRB, to accept that this notion of learning should be extended to stakeholders would lead to changes in their assumptions of intelligence in the organisation.

8.2.2 Human Nature, Intelligence and Motivation

In chapter 3, we have discussed the view of intelligence in a bureaucracy where the few top leaders in the organisation are viewed as sufficiently intelligent to make key decisions in the organisation while the majority are considered to be mediocre (Brown and Lauder, 2001). However, in a learning organisation, the view of intelligence is more open and seen to be widely dispersed in the organisation through network learning or 'learning communities' (Koffman and Senge, 1993). This idea raises the importance of collective learning (Brown and Lauder, 2001; Handy, 1993; Marsick, 1994; Argyris and Schon, 1987) in organisations.

The data revealed teamwork and a sense of belonging are also one of the important factor that motivates MIRB employees to perform their best. The survey data confirms that the tax officers were motivated to perform by many factors other than monetary rewards. When the issue was further investigated during interviews, again the general response from the interviewees was that they were motivated by factors such as teamwork ethos, the job itself, religious obligations and opportunity to learn.

Although, these factors were also highlighted during the interviews, some tax officers also elaborated on how they personally managed their own tensions and frustrations in the organisation. Many of these motivating factors related to cultural and religious dimensions. However, there is also evidence that, to some extent, the younger generation of MIRB is breaking away from the traditional values of just being happy working as a team. On the one hand they are eager to perform but at the same time they are also looking for monetary rewards. The need to therefore link learning and reward might be used as an approach to harmonise the learning goals of the organisation with the aspiration of individuals.

8.2.3 Power, Control and Co-ordination

In a bureaucracy power is derived from formal authority. It is used as a tool, used by superiors to control their subordinates, co-ordinate organisation activities and achieve organisational goals. The common type of power and authority in most organisations is associated with the position and designation one holds (Morgan, 1997). Abdullah and Singh (1992) noted that it is common in Malaysian society to accept leaders as 'wise elders', consequently their authority is unquestioned and unchallenged. By the same token the employees are expected to be loyal to the organisation. This view is borne out by the interviews with tax officers, the middle managers and top management.

While the tax officers believed that they had little say in policy decision making, the most senior authority in MIRB confirmed in an interview that she considered the opinions of the tax officers in operational matters only. In MIRB, policy is segregated according to whether it is operational or related to higher level fundamental issues. The streamlining of policy tends to exclude certain people or

groups in decision making. In one instance the manager of a branch claimed in an interview, that policy matters were discussed with staff but her subordinates commented that the purpose of meetings was usually to inform them of decisions rather than asking for their opinions.

Problems in sharing decision making in MIRB are well understood as this was highlighted by Zakaria (1996) who also found that often conflicts and differences in opinions arise between the senior management, middle management and the tax officers. The data from this research is in agreement with Zakaria, although it should be noted that it was quite difficult to get the tax officers to talk about the issue. The building of a learning organisation requires sharing of power widely across all types of policy issues because in practice they are so closely related and this depends heavily on the willingness of the senior and middle management to share power with their subordinates. Sharing of power entails a high level of trust between all members of the organisation, which will be discussed next.

8.2.4 Management-Employee Relationships

Three important aspects of the management-employee relationships relevant to building a learning organisation was explored in the thesis: trust, effective communication and career development. In the previous chapters, we have discussed how MIRB use tight surveillance in monitoring performance of the staff which shows that it is indeed a low trust organisation (Fox, 1974). Theoretically, this should impact on learning and dissemination of knowledge in the organisation. Collective learning in an organisation can only be developed through trust between all members of the organisation. Lack of trust among colleagues will lead to information rigidity because people are not willing to share ideas (Brown and

Lauder, 2001). Fox (1974) emphasised that trust between superior and subordinates are exemplified in the form of more delegation of power to enable individuals and teams to make decisions, learn and make mistakes.

To some extent, tax officers are given a limited level of freedom and trust in performing their job. But, this is because of the routine 'pigeonholing' nature of much of their job, which requires no close monitoring. Beyond this, 'pigeonholing' based on a repertoire of standard programmes and routines within which skills are applied, the discretion of the tax officers is strictly governed. In other words, trust is conditional, it is only allowed within the legal framework of the organisation. Gambetta (1988) proposed that the reciprocal nature of trust if it is conferred unconditionally will enhance a sense of responsibility in the recipients of it. Quite surprisingly, the tax officers in the survey generally agree that the level of trust given is sufficient and they do not expect more. In the interviews, the issue was further investigated and most of them agreed that the trust in the form of discretion has to be within the legal framework, which is seen as a means of protecting them against challenges from the public. At this point, a bureaucracy like MIRB would have trouble becoming a learning organisation where trust is necessary in facilitating people to learn. In MIRB, the problem of trust is more apparent between the management and the subordinates. The data revealed that in horizontal relationships the trust is transparent and observing how teams work clearly demonstrated that the level of trust among them is high and necessary to keep the team performing.

However, when cases demand tax officers to go beyond routine pigeonholing, this is when the limitation of lack of discretion are more likely to become apparent. Power devolution and trust are intertwined and it is unlikely that one would be present

without the other, and in the absence of either one, innovation would be hampered. This also relates to communication patterns in the organisation. About 73 per cent of the respondents in the survey agreed that the communication with senior management in MIRB is formal. Formality in communication is part of the hierarchy system and has a lot to do with the Malaysian culture of respecting the 'elders' (Abdullah, 1992a). There are 2 main issues of communication in MIRB:

- How information and knowledge (explicit and implicit) are communicated across the organisation?
- How communication happens in relation to daily routines?

As regards to the first issue, we have discussed how information and knowledge are communicated in this organisation, which is via teams, peers interaction and from seniors ranking officers to subordinates. The data showed that while information and knowledge are shared among individuals at the same level through teamwork, vertical learning in MIRB is usually from the top down. Although, there is some evidence of knowledge flowing from the bottom upwards, it is rare. The case quoted of juniors coaching the senior ranking officers is a-typical. Once an officer is promoted and established in his/her position at a higher level, learning is top down. The role of leaders as emphasised by many in MIRB, as having the responsibility to impart knowledge, differs to what learning organisation theorist propose. While bureaucracy emphasises the power and authority of leaders, the learning organisation focuses on the role of leaders as designers, teachers and stewards (Senge, 1990). The leaders are expected to facilitate and provide learning opportunities for members of the organisation. In the survey data, the communication at branch offices was found to be better in this respect than offices nearer to headquarters (Lembah Kelang area). Communication was less formal and tense in branch offices because of smaller workloads and less demanding files to be

settled. In interviews with the tax officers in Seremban (about 65 km from headquarters), the same comments were given about the nature of their communications, where the tax officers felt more at ease with the management and *vice versa*.

From the interview with the senior management of MIRB, it was discovered that the leader of MIRB was more concerned with revenue collection than learning because that is the key performance indicator by which MIRB is judged by the federal government. This criterion of performance acts as a severe constraint on innovation. As a result, the interview data showed that while management is focussing on revenue collection and performance, they seem less aware that employees are not satisfied with issues relating to career development. There are various aspects of human resources that need to be given careful consideration by MIRB if they want to keep the best people in the organisation. The data disclosed that, there is a significant proportion of officers who are considering taking their expertise into the private sector. It should be said here, that the Western concept of introducing a flatter organisation in MIRB was not entirely successful because power was not devolved and larger opportunities were diminished.

8.3 The Barriers Preventing MIRB From Becoming a Learning Organisation.

Earlier in this thesis, we suggested that learning and the learning organisation concept could potentially solve the problems of MIRB. However, as the data suggest there are some distinct barriers that are peculiar to government agencies that makes implementation of a 'full' learning organisation difficult. The theoretical and practical barriers in creating a learning organisation have been discussed in Chapter

4. In this section, we will discuss the barriers that have been specifically identified in this research.

8.3.1 Theoretical Barriers

The theoretical barriers of building a learning organisation have been identified in transaction cost theory (Williamson, 1975). The most relevant aspect of Williamson's transaction cost theory is the assumption of human opportunism and bounded rationality. Both these assumptions reveal the limitation of humans that leads to 'organisational failures.' Opportunism is defined as the self interest with guile while bounded rationality refers to behaviours which intend to be rational but are limited by knowledge, foresight, skill and time.

However, alternative views offered by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1997), Trompenaars and Turner (1999), Lane (1991), Kay (1996) gave a different perspective, which can be used as a positive approach towards building a learning organisation. Given the threat that opportunism may arise, we examined whether Williamson's view holds true in the case of MIRB and how the problem of opportunism can be dealt with in this organisation to overcome one of the barriers in creating a learning organisation.

Questions were asked, if tax officers were learning for their career development inside or outside the organisation and whether they were motivated to perform in the workplace because it leads to career development. The results in the survey showed that 47 per cent of the respondents agreed that they are motivated to perform in the workplace because they believe that it would lead to career development outside the organisation. About 33 per cent admitted that they learnt for a future career outside the organisation. From these responses it can be inferred

that there is a certain level of opportunism that exists in this organisation. The same questions were asked during interviews with tax officers and although some said they were likely to leave the organisation if there was an opportunity, many said that they would not choose to leave MIRB after many years of service. Issues such as loyalty, teamwork, learning opportunities and long years of service to the organisation were among other factors that committed them to the organisation.

8.3.2 *Practical Barriers*

The practical barriers faced by MIRB are related to their daily routines and practice. There are 4 factors, which are identified as barriers to learning in MIRB:

- Issue of transparency and accountability
- Heavy reliance on in-service training
- Incongruency of goals
- Poor career development for the staff

As a government agency, the need to maintain public accountability and transparency in its administration is crucial. The need for transparency and accountability in public organisations is paramount because they need to address the various interests of multiple stakeholders on the basis of treating equals equally. This may be one of the reasons that inhibit the building of a learning organisation within government agencies.¹ MIRB explicitly emphasises the need for transparency and accountability in almost every aspect of its operations. It is very cautious and strict ethics is practised to safeguard the interest of taxpayers. As such, this is a

¹ It may be these reasons and other features prevalent in public service organisations which merit more explicit recognition as limiting factors in the realisation of the learning organisation ideal in the public sector (Smith and Taylor, 2000). However, they concluded in their study on the British Civil Service that, the concept of public accountability is elusive and carries different weight and meanings in different organisation.

limiting factor towards building an ideal learning organisation because MIRB has a very low tolerance for mistakes and risk taking.

The next barrier that has been identified is that MIRB relies heavily on in-service training, which may not lead to learning as an integral part of the organisation. As a result of this, there may be less than effective links between training, which provides theory and the practice. In further investigation, the interviewees also emphasised the importance of informal learning although the need for formal training was not denied.

The incongruency of goals between public and private organisations can be analysed from both external and internal perspectives. The former relates to the different goal orientations between public and private organisations, which makes it difficult to apply concepts such as that of the learning organisation in the public sector. Stewart (1997) in his attempt to clarify the issue of the transferability of learning organisation ideals from private to public organisations, fails to recognise the significance of the distinction between market-driven and political goals. He sees all of them as more or less public and all organisations as subject to “political manoeuvring”. Clearly, in the case of MIRB, it is faced with knowledge competition with private practitioners but so far this force has not been strong enough to push MIRB beyond existing organisational boundaries to innovate and generate knowledge. While the risk of going out of business is so much higher for the private sector, it is unlikely that MIRB will be pushed further by knowledge competition. The internal goals on the other hand, refer to the problem of incongruency between an organisation and individuals’ goals, which creates tensions between the employees and management. It is this issue which relates to Williamson’s ‘opportunism’. Lack of career development and incentives to learning are among the

factors that retard learning and create dissatisfaction among the members of the organisation.

Learning in MIRB is not related to any form of incentive. Many that were interviewed and the questionnaire results indicated that a significant proportion of tax officers are very sceptical about their future career in MIRB, since there is no clear career path. However, in the interviews, some noted that although one may do well in departmental examinations, that does not necessarily mean one will excel in performing the job. Hence, there is an issue as to what sphere of learning should be included in the assessment of tax officers. Should it only be formal learning or the ability to innovate and act as a conduit for knowledge within the team?

Thompson (1972) argued that the inability of bureaucracy to deal with conflicts depresses creativity, which further block innovation. As a result, workers behave like 'robots' and in MIRB we found that most of the tax officers are obsessed about achieving targets set by management. This hampers their learning because at the end of the day they are not questioned about how much they have learnt but rather how many files/cases have they cleared and is the production target being achieved? Building in the criterion for promotion which acknowledges formal and informal learning and the role of the individual in team learning may mitigate the obsession with performance. This dilemma was raised in the interviews, where the tax officers claimed that they had to make a difficult choice between achieving stringent performance targets and learning from their case files. Their predicament is also shared by the CEO who agreed to the existence of a crucial choice here.

The peril of the whole situation is that the leaders fail to see the reality of their problems. The root of the problem lies in the mindset of the leaders in MIRB, which

requires them to reconsider sharing of power, putting more trust in their employees and not just paying lip service as to the importance of employees as assets to the organisation. Although, it was frequently said in the interviews among the managers that they trust their staff, the reality is that they are still in charge with little room for tax officers to be heard. And even if freedom to express their opinions is given the ultimate decisions still belong to the elite few in the organisation, it is very clear who is in charge!

8.3.3 *Cultural Barriers*

Finally, the impact of cultural elements on an organisation cannot be ignored in any attempt to create a learning organisation. Senge (1990) in his seminal work on learning organisations has omitted the cultural and power aspects of learning organisations. Malaysian organisations generally have very different organisational structures, power and social relationships (Glaser and Halliday, 1999; Trompenaars and Turner, 1993; Hallinger, 1998) as compared to the West. The findings showed that when MIRB attempted to create a flatter organisation structure it undermined the morale of the tax officers to some extent and resulted in grievances among its employees. Hierarchy is so deeply rooted in Malaysian culture (Abdullah, 1992a; Mansor, 1992) that doing away with it is almost impossible. The attempt to flatten MIRB's structure by tearing down the levels of hierarchy and chain of command in the organisation only managed to change the appearance of the organisation but the reality as to where power resides has not changed in any way.

Finally, as described by Argyris (1991) the culture of the professional organisation itself represents a constraint. He argued that professionals have a body of knowledge that constrains their learning. They rarely fail and do not know how to

learn from failure. When challenged, they become very defensive and tend to focus attention away from their behaviour to that of others. Argyris called this defensive reasoning. Professionals also go into a doom loop of despair if they do not perform perfectly or if they do not receive adequate recognition. Being a professional bureaucracy, MIRB has very definite ways of doing things and hence it makes it difficult for it to learn in the double loop sense. Given such a scenario, learning has to be done through other routes and we need to identify how the barriers to learning in MIRB can be by-passed.

The findings of this research have further reinforced the proposition as regards to the influence of cultural elements in the Malaysian's workplace highlighted in Chapter 2. In the empirical work of this study, the cultural elements are embedded and implicit but they form the basis for understanding the deeper problems of the organisation.

8.3.4 How and to What Extent Can the Barriers be Overcome?

With all the barriers mentioned above, there are several tensions that need to be managed in MIRB before it can approximate more to a learning organisation. To what extent those barriers mentioned above could be overcome would depend on the ability of MIRB to be flexible and receptive towards change. Emulating a Western model of a learning organisation is definitely not a good option for MIRB. In MIRB, learning is seen in its narrow concept within the framework of training and that needs to be widened. It is not a question of either bureaucracy which has become obsolete or a new form of organisation that is needed, but it is about managing these tensions in the real world which will provide the best compromise between the two ideal types, bureaucracy and learning organisation.

Tensions in an organisation could be managed through extensive power sharing in teamwork and collaboration. Sharing power through teams requires the management to consider how far they would want to share powers in the organisation. However, it depends on how much risk the management is willing to take (Wallace and Huckman, 1999). There is obviously a trade-off between risk and effectiveness that the management needs to weigh in making that decision. In the case of MIRB, they are bounded by legal constraints where there is only a limited amount of power that could be shared. Wallace and Huckman (1999) propose that blending the cultural and political perspectives would link beliefs and values. The cultural perspective allows us to investigate how far beliefs and values of team members are shared and the political perspective helps to analyse how individuals and groups can access various resources in achieving their ends.

It is clear that in the findings, culture and religious factors have mitigated problems in MIRB. In interviews with most of the tax officers regardless of their religion, the emphasis on commitment to perform based on morals and religious conscience become more evident. The findings showed that tax officers in MIRB are motivated to perform regardless of whether there is any monetary implication attached to it, and this is not something unusual in an organisation where the majority of the employees are Muslim. This is in fact, consistent with the findings of Mansor and Ali (1998) on their study of Malaysian organisations. They summed up that the behaviour of the Malaysian workers is guided by:

.... that one should be honest in what one does and sincere in discharging one's duties. Being in a job is a 'responsibility' (or *amanah*). To perform one's duty well is a form of 'duty' (or *ibadah*) which reflects the degree of an individual's observation of the tenets of the religion. It is also very much tied to the fact that one is answerable or accountable to God for one's actions (Mansor and Ali, 1998: 507).

In the case of MIRB, strong teamwork and collectivism in the organisation is their *forte*, which can be further explored to enhance learning and thus building a learning organisation. The approaches taken should be consistent with the organisation culture where an emphasis on hierarchy is accepted, following the model of EDB in Singapore (Schein, 1996) but where role and status are not closely tied so that as in one example in this thesis, superiors can learn from subordinates. However, from the case study of MIRB, it can be concluded that there is no one set of rules or procedures in setting up a learning organisation. Each organisation would position itself differently (Kay, 1993) depending on its market or goals as in the case of MIRB.

8.4 Policy Implications

In this section, we will examine the implications of the empirical findings and the research on the organisation as a whole. The intention of this section is to recommend feasible policies for change in the light of the major issues that have been addressed. Learning as have been defended in this thesis, is of equal importance for both the individual and the organisation itself. Some practical policies have been identified and perhaps MIRB might consider adopting within this framework.

We can start by looking at the attempts to flatten the organisational structure while at the same time hierarchy at the upper level was maintained creating tension and confusion among the staff. Further, this has also reduced opportunities for promotion in the organisation, which dampened the chances for career

development.² From this perspective, MIRB has failed to consider the organisation culture and how it contradicts itself in some areas. They wanted to have a flatter organisation structure but tried to preserve hierarchies in the organisation and tried to implement Islamic managerial principles. In flattening the structure, the concept of hierarchies, which is deeply embedded in the bureaucratic structures and in line with Malay traditional culture, was contradicted. But to make matter more complicated a genuine flattening of structure would have been consistent with Islamic work ethics. While the interpersonal relationships in bureaucratic hierarchies emphasise lines of authority, the Islamic virtues actually emphasise on lateral or horizontal relationship of brotherhood (Glaser and Halliday, 1999). Hence, the adoption of their innovation created multiple tensions, confusion and loss of respect among employees. MIRB should be built on common values and principles to cater for the interest of its members from various cultures and religious backgrounds to improve trust and communication in the organisation. This example of restructuring demonstrated why Western off-the-shelf models should not be adopted uncritically, given an already complex cultural situation. It is a good example of where restructuring might have been much more effective if tax officers had been consulted.

Policy making is segregated into higher level fundamental policy and those pertaining to operational matters. The separation of policy indicates that MIRB has failed to see the holistic nature of the organisation due to compartmentalisation. As such, problems were seen from a narrow perspective rather than from the bigger picture and how they impact on the organisation as a whole. Converging the organisational goals and the individuals goals is necessary to a sharing of vision

² We recalled from chapter 2, where the restructuring of MIRB resulted in the abolition of two promotional grades for the tax officer, grade A12 and A11.

(Senge, 1991) in this organisation. This would also help employees to appreciate the organisations' problems, limitations and aspirations. This is not something impossible because our data showed that despite the discrepancies in MIRB the general motivation of the employees has been restored after the period of restructuring. This should be taken to the advantage of the management while at the same time not abusing the employees' commitment towards the organisation.

The human resource policy of MIRB should be directed towards improving and enhancing informal learning in the organisation. Although, MIRB has developed a strong culture of training it needs to be reconsidered to link the gap between theory and practice. The evidence of this research is that, the niche advantage of MIRB lies in informal learning and as such more focus should be given to it. Both types of learning need to be integrated to produce a synergistic approach. The informal learning such as desk training, mentor system (checker system) and job rotation should be given emphasis by developing a more comprehensive understanding of the effective methods of informal learning in the organisation. Other informal learning such as peer interaction and learning by doing should be encouraged through more autonomous teamwork at all levels in the organisation. The recent introduction of the organisation's journal should be an avenue for the employees to express their ideas and generate knowledge relevant to taxation, and as previously suggested formal learning and performance within teams should be linked to promotion.

The organisation needs to deal with opportunism through providing better incentives and career development for employees. Although, the brain drain problem is not crucial in MIRB, the policy should be directed towards maintaining the best people in the organisation. One of the senior management emphasised that,

such circumstances are unavoidable and he believed that the organisation will continue to perform regardless of losing their best people. But it is time that MIRB started thinking about how they can retain the best people as a form of investment. It is not only a waste of money training people who will ultimately leave the organisation but it also is a loss of institutional memory and tacit knowledge. Although, the findings in the survey showed that personal motivation was high there is definitely a gap or difference of opinions between the older and younger generation of MIRB as to the importance of incentives. Therefore, restructuring the career development of employees of MIRB is crucial. Performance criteria should also be tailored towards evaluating the learning and skills that have been acquired during the tax officer's service rather obsessively concentrating on achieving the quantity aspects of the performance targets. Innovation should be encouraged and implemented to actually test the results of such ideas.

The findings of the research and the discussion of the barriers to learning in the previous section showed that MIRB needs to handle the power equation of the organisation diligently if it wants to progress and enhance learning. MIRB could use its strength in teamwork as an avenue for sharing of powers. Teamwork in MIRB should be developed into more self-designing teams (Cressey and Kelleher, 1999) with greater autonomy given in making decisions. MIRB has excellent experience with team learning but with power devolved, vertical learning could be further improved. More people from the top need to learn from people at the lower level of the organisation, to learn from the younger staff who have expertise in certain fields, especially computer technology. The traditional ways of giving orders from the top and considering one's power to reside in authority is unlikely to work in this millennium (Toffler, 1991).

The management-employee relationship can be further improved through better communication and increased trust in the organisation. In the field of taxation, it has been suggested that installing a better management information system will improve tax administration (Bird, 1991; Zakaria, 1996). Better management information systems will enhance network learning in the organisation and also reduces the tension of over formalisation in communication. It is crucial that, MIRB establishes an effective learning network within the organisation before such ideas are extended to the stakeholders, in particular the tax practitioners. Impressive ideas such as 'smart partnerships' will be better if the internal learning network is developed and implemented at its best. The learning network would provide a system where the tax officers could share their experience, and make most, if not all of the tacit knowledge explicit. This would encourage innovation through stimulation of ideas within the organisation.

To implement learning networks be it through computer technology or physical association of individuals requires a certain level of trust from the top allowing workers to express new ideas and implement them. Although, bounded by a legal framework, flexibility and discretion could be allowed as the administrative power is within the prerogative of the top management. To empower tax officers is to give them trust. Inculcating trust begins from the top and the management has to be serious in giving trust to its employees. Following Fox (1974) and Gambetta (1988), trust should be viewed as a two-way affair in which employee will honour the trust given.

These suggestions are not something that are beyond the reach of the organisation but if the issues that have been highlighted are properly managed they will ultimately improve organisational learning. Finally, to answer the main questions as

to how much has MIRB approximated to a learning organisation model, it can be concluded that MIRB has departed from a typical bureaucratic organisation. Its strength in teamwork and collectivity can be a great advantage in building a learning organisation. The commitment of the employees to perform is also a benefit to the organisation. But, finally to be able to manage effectively the tensions that have been highlighted in this chapter will be crucial. It has also been emphasised that the various problems in MIRB, especially in motivation, have been mitigated by Malaysian business culture and religious perspectives and it is therefore unlikely that an organisation in the UK could learn from the experiences of MIRB.

8.5 Final Thoughts

The study of organisations is complex as it involves people of different backgrounds and culture, merging together in a unified organisation, which aims at achieving common goals. The diversity of culture, background and goals of individuals in the organisation makes it difficult to comprehend the working of the whole organisation. Doing research within a limited framework of time makes it even more difficult to come up with a unified and coherent understanding.

There are a few aspects of the research that are worth reconsidering. This study has largely examined respondents' views, that is their espoused views as to the organisational processes of learning in MIRB rather than their actual learning. Hence, we have emphasised their learning opportunities and what they said about them. A more developed study would seek to examine more closely what they have actually learnt, through a longitudinal study.

The research has ventured into some neglected aspects of tax administration with the hope of proposing solutions to MIRB's problems. The idea of a learning organisation is something new to MIRB. The majority of the people interviewed by the researcher know very little about the concept. To them, learning is something that they have been doing all their life and thus it is taken for granted. It would be an advantage if there were more time for the ideas on learning organisation to be introduced through short articles written in the organisation's journal and magazine.

Some issues raised and questions asked during interviews and in the questionnaires tended to be sensitive at times. Therefore, eliciting true opinions can be difficult, as a lot has to be understood 'between the lines' of what was being said. To date, there has never been such an extensive study on the management of MIRB and this research could be used as a stepping stone to venture into further research to improve MIRB in the future.

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APPENDIX I

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Can the Malaysian Inland Revenue Board Become a Learning Organisation: Issues of Bureaucracy, Culture and Change

Dear respondents,

This survey attempts to solicit opinions on the issues of learning and the related variables in the Inland Revenue Board of Malaysia. Please give your responses to the statements listed below by checking (✓) the appropriate column that best describes what you feel according to the scale. Where explanations are needed feel free to put down your thoughts and ideas. Your co-operation in answering all the questions is greatly appreciated. Please seal your completed survey in the envelope attached.

Thank you.

SECTION A

	strongly agree	agree	undecided	strongly disagree	strongly disagree
The formal training given by the National Tax Academy is sufficient to prepare me for the job.					
The desk training (informal training) is important to prepare me for the job.					
The formal training helps me in solving problems encountered in my daily job.					
The training helps me to be innovative in my job.					

Would you like to add any comments about the training in IRB?

	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
An incentive allowance should be given to those who pass the advanced course.					
Passing the advanced course should be one of the criteria for promotion.					
I can discuss any job-related problems with my group leaders at all times.					
The senior management is easily accessible when I need to discuss my work problem.					
Communication between various levels of hierarchies in IRB is very formal.					

Is there anything that you would like to add in describing the communication process in IRB at all level:

In the workplace, I am motivated to work because:

	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
my job is interesting					
it provides personal development					
It give me the opportunity to learn					
working is a religious obligation					
it leads to my career development in IRB					
it leads to my career development outside IRB					

Are there any other reasons that motivate you to perform in the workplace?

SECTION B

How much importance do you, **as an individual** place on each of the following issues in your working life in the Inland Revenue Board (IRB):

	Very important	Fairly important	Of some important	Fairly unimportant	Not important
Keeping up with knowledge					
Sharing of knowledge					
Teamwork					
Team learning					
Learning for self development					
Career development					

Please state your degree of agreement or disagreement on the statements listed below:

	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
People are sharing knowledge with each other in this organisation.					
I learn for future career prospect outside the organisation.					
Working in a team gives me the opportunity to learn from others.					
Team learning is more effective than individual learning.					
Teamwork is important in field audit					
Teamwork is important in Investigation work.					

In terms of **tax knowledge** I see tax practitioners, (such as, PricewaterhouseCoopers, Ernst and Young and Arthur Anderson) as:

	YES	NO
competitors		
partners		
complementary roles		
Others (please explain)		

Would you like to add anything to your answers to the above question?

The sources of learning in IRB are:

	YES	NO
formal training		
on the job training		
experience		
case law		
taxpayers' file		
peers		
senior officers		
interaction with customers		
interaction with tax practitioners		
Other sources (please specify):		

SECTION C

	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
In performing my job I can act independently with minimum supervision.					
I am given enough autonomy and discretion in performing my job.					
I should be given more autonomy and discretion in performing my job.					

How would you describe the level of trust in your unit/division/branch or the organisation?

SECTION D

The statements below attempt to seek your opinion on how powers are shared in this organisation:

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
I feel free to speak my mind on any aspect of the job even if it means disagreeing with my superior.					
The management encourages participation of the staff in making decision.					
My superior gets me involved when making decisions on work process.					
When performing my work, I get orders from my superior.					
I can make my own decision in solving my case.					

SECTION E

	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
Learning is a continuous process in this organisation					
My job requires learning					
The management at all levels encourages learning of the staff.					
The IRB management facilitates my learning needs.					
I am responsible for my personal learning development.					

Is there anything that you would like to add about the importance of learning in IRB?

Please give us some information about yourself. This information will help us in the analysis of the answers you gave previously.

Age : _____ years

Grade/Position : _____
(Please indicate if you are a group leader, deputy or hold any special designation.)

Division/Branch : _____

Years of service in IRB : _____ years

Prior to the establishment of IRB:

What were your grade and scheme of service? _____

(Please indicate if you were an Assessment Officer or Examiner and your grade such as; A20, A22, A11 or A12)

Please tick the appropriate answers:

Gender:

Male

<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>

Female

Please indicate your academic qualification:

High School Certificate

Diploma

Bachelor Degree

Masters Degree

PhD

<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>

Professional Qualification/Membership: _____

Did you acquire the above qualification during your service in IRB?

Yes

<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>

No

Please list down the training that you have attended since in service with IRB:

Thank you for your participation in this survey

APPENDIX II

GUIDELINE FOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR CEO AND SENIOR MANAGEMENT AND TAX OFFICERS

These are some of the questions asked during the interviews. This list served as a checklist for the researcher during the interviews. The questions asked do not follow the sequence of this checklist. Some questions only apply to certain level of officers in the organisation.

1. PERSONAL BACKGROUND

Name:

Position:

Age:

Gender:

Division:

Years of service in MIRB:

Training attended in service:

2. GENERAL QUESTIONS

The objective here is to generate the overall policy and vision of the organisation in the present and the future. The questions also intended to solicit the perception of the CEO, senior management and tax officers with regard to corporatisation of MIRB.

- 2.1 What are the goals and objectives of this organisation in relation to its human resources?
- 2.2 What are the major challenges faced by MIRB today?
- 2.3 What was the main reason for corporatising this organisation?
- 2.4 To what extent has this corporatisation changed MIRB in terms of the following factors:
 - a. Structure
 - b. Management
 - c. Communication
 - d. Career of the staff

3. HUMAN RESOURCES ISSUES

The objective is to investigate how MIRB has organised and managed its human resources in promoting learning organisation concepts and activities.

3.1 Training

- 3.1.1 What areas of training/learning have been most affected by changes in recent years?
- 3.1.2 Is the training and learning needs of MIRB affected by changes in the external environment?

- 3.1.3 If this is so how does MIRB prepares itself to meet these challenges?
- 3.1.4 Which is more useful, is it the training at NTA or the desk training?
- 3.1.5 How do you think the training has improved you?
- 3.1.6 How do you identify the training or learning needs of the employees?
- 3.1.7 What do you emphasise in training?
- 3.1.8 Is there any special training or knowledge that is peculiar to this organisation?
- 3.1.9 Is there any relation between training and the career development of an individual in the organisation? If so, how?

3.2 Compensation and reward

- 3.2.1 How does MIRB's salary structure differs from other government departments?
- 3.2.2 Are you happy with the present pay structure?
- 3.2.3 Who decides on pay increments?
- 3.2.4 What are the criteria used to evaluate your performance?
- 3.2.5 Is there an incentive given to staff who passes the advanced examination?

3.3 Management, Communication and Trust

- 3.3.1 How would you describe the MIRB management style?
- 3.3.2 What is your opinion on the communication flow in the organisation
- 3.3.3 Is there any problem of communication in MIRB
- 3.3.4 Do you voice your opinion when you disagree on an issue?
- 3.3.5 How well does the management receive your ideas?
- 3.3.6 Who do you refer to if you have a work problem
- 3.3.7 What motivates you to perform?
- 3.3.8 Do you think you should be given more discretion in your work?
- 3.3.9 Does you supervisor and the upper management trust you?
- 3.3.10 Do you trust your staff?

4. INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

To identify what the perceptions of individuals and the organisation as a whole perceive learning goals to be and to analyse events which will lead to collective learning.

4.1 Individual learning

- 4.1.1 What do you understand of learning?
- 4.1.2 How is it different from training?
- 4.1.3 Why do you think you need to learn?
 - a. in terms of your job
 - b. in terms of personal development
 - c. in terms of future prospect outside the organisation
- 4.1.4 Do you think MIRB should be responsible for your personal development learning?
- 4.1.5 Do you think learning in MIRB will give you opportunities in your future career? In the organisation and outside the organisation. If so how?
- 4.1.6 Do you plan to join the private sector?
- 4.1.7 Do you think the role of the superiors and seniors officer are important in providing learning?

4.2 Organisational learning

- 4.2.1 Do you think learning is very important in MIRB and why?
- 4.2.2 What are the kinds of learning that are most crucial to MIRB?
- 4.2.3 How can these kinds of learning be achieved?
- 4.2.4 What are the factors that encourage learning in this organisation?
- 4.2.5 What are the factors that inhibit learning in this organisation?
- 4.2.6 In terms of tax knowledge, do you think MIRB is in competition with the expertise and practitioners outside?
- 4.2.7 Why must MIRB keep up to date with knowledge?
- 4.2.8 Do you think your learning goals are compatible with the organisation goals?

5. LEARNING ORGANISATION

To find out if people understand the concept of a learning organisation and the extent to which they think MIRB has the potential to become one.

- 5.1.1 Do you think the organisation has changed and transformed itself from a bureaucratic organisation to a more dynamic corporate organisation?
- 5.1.2 Do you think MIRB is a learning organisation?
- 5.1.3 Can MIRB become a learning organisation in future?

APPENDIX III

SAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION (SENIOR MANAGEMENT)

Name: Mr. A

Position: Senior Management

The interview was conducted in English, tape recorded and transcribed word by word spoken by the respondent. However in this case the format of the interview was different in the sense that the interview began with a mutual briefing from both the interviewer and the respondent.

The respondent requested that I gave him an introduction to my research to begin with. I gave the overall perspectives of my research and the areas that I was focusing on. During the briefing he took down some notes. In particular I told him that I was looking at the organisation culture, teamwork, level of trust and power relationship in this organisation and how these variables are managed in MIRB. I also informed him that I was investigating the potential of MIRB to become a learning organisation.

He then said that he would brief me on what the organisation has done so far and at the end of the session he said I could ask him anything that I wanted to know further.

His briefing on what the organisation has done so far?

Mr. A's briefing:

What we are trying to do in this organisation is that we are trying to create a culture where people work together in-groups. What we feel is that individually you can do something but is better to have teamwork in whatever you do. In the concept of teamwork we are also practising in terms of dissemination of knowledge. Because we feel that here people who are experienced should generate that experience and part it to others.

So if you go back to history right from the beginning people with experiences in this organisation try to part knowledge with people who are with them or people in the

organisation. So how we do it is by going through desk training. In terms of desk training is not about how educated you are in terms of academic qualification but it is how much you know in this job (work experience).

Even in the 1970s and 80s people who are experienced in their work become group leaders and coaches. In 1970s people supervising my work were not necessary grade A officers but they are the group leaders who could be the second liner but this people had the knowledge and they part the knowledge. They have been training people with them.

What we have now been doing is we have been carrying on this concept, the group leader, head of the organisation or group teaching people what is required, training people to make sure that you understand the basic.

The other aspect we have is the academic training at the Academy. So that gives you the academic framework part and it is coupled with the practice aspect of desk training. So it give you to put the theory into practice. The practical training that we have been emphasising is through the practice of teamwork. Among the peers you learn and we share knowledge through meetings.

It is through the former Director General, Dato Hassan where he brought the concept of technical groups, which was formed within the organisation, where the head plays a role as technical head. He is not only an administrative head but also a technical head. He looks at the problem of the branch and they try to solve the problem at branch level and discuss. Here again the concept of teamwork comes in, which mean that even at the branch level we have the concept of teamwork and sharing of knowledge and etc.

At branches we have technical meetings which tend to be very focus, raise and discuss issues by reference to case laws, be it reference to cases that have been through or even by cases which have been done by other branches.

Quality group circles are being set up in all branches. The aim is to ensure those work done meet the desired standard. We want designated people to be appointed to review past assessment. This is done on programme basis where the examination of file is done at random. From the spotted errors they will then know what are the area of concentration that they will need to do. If errors are committed consistently

by more than one person then that indicates that he lack training or careless. We try to find the root cause and how the branch can play a positive role of enhancing work done. This is because you are going to be measured by the product you delivered (that is the notice of assessment). The taxpayers are concern whether it is an accurate notice of assessment issued. We are being measured by that. If errors occurs this mean there are going to be a loss of man-hour and revenue. We have to ensure that our output meets with the customer requirement. Customers could be internal and external. So we are trying to create the branches to play a role, the reason is that it is their responsibility to ensure the output produce in every branch meet the desired standard set by the management. If they themselves partake in this programme we feel that the ownership is theirs. Rather than having the third party coming to check on them, we are getting the branches to accept this concept. They will then know their area of weakness and improve to meet the quality standard.

The branch will report to HQ biannually. They are suggested to check/examine one percent of their total files. Then remedial actions are taken to improve their standard. At the same time the internal and external audit also does their examination. So what we do is we compare these findings.

Q: How genuine is the quality group in spotting errors as they themselves may not want to report a high error rate to HQ?

We are fully aware that statistics can lie. We are fully aware that it is good and so far the coverage is good. If the branches are not aware why they are doing this then they will tend to give us fictitious figures. So how we try to look at the genuine of this by comparing to what has been sported by the internal and external audit. If the branch give a very low error rate and the internal and external audit give a different figure then there is a suspect. So we can do some monitoring by that way. I agree with you that it is very difficult to get people to do self inspection but we are trying to sell the ideas that it is better that if you do it yourself you will go for self improvement. I personally belief that the self-improvement is the way forward. Not through the external parties because the minute the external parties does it, it become a reprimand.

And when they find fault with you, you become defensive. Then they are not improving. In fact we tend to have problem and we tend to suspect figures coming in and we go back to the branch and tell them that you have tell us only this but we

have spotted this. So we ask them, is the sampling right, are the right people doing it. Because we have found that in some branches A check B's work, the question of competency comes in. Is B competent enough to check A's work? or is it they want to lower their error figures and doing this just as an "exercise". We do not want them to do that.

I am selling this idea in the last 2/3 years during the top management conference. We do not want to be looked into by the external auditors because this will then be informed to the government. We want the external auditors to see us as clean.

Q: So how do you determine that the standards have been improved over the years?

It is through the sampling. From the number of appeals and complaints we received Through the types of errors spotted by the internal and external. Are these errors repeated.

Cost effectiveness- we are concern with cost effectiveness, how good is the assessment issued, what is the value of the assessment. What is your cost of collections? How much error you have done?

These indicators show how effective we have been. These are the areas we looked at as a form of learning from mistakes. We also look at efficiency. We measure efficiency in terms of our error rate.

As an organisation we learn from mistakes through the programmes implemented. As an example: when the Scheduler Tax Deduction (STD) Scheme was introduced. When we introduce it we thought we have covered all areas and introduction will be smooth. But since 1995 till now we found that there is an area of weakness. The weakness is we want the employer to play a role and we found that they are not positive in playing the role. We learn from this mistake. So now as you know we are going towards PY to CY and self-assessment. The management decided that we must have a very good publicity campaign and sell this idea to the public. So they will be able to appreciate and partake in the programme. We found that in the case of STD we fail because the employer fails to fulfil their duties.

So this is the mistake we learn. As an organisation we look at how we have introduced programme, where have we gone wrong and what needs to be given attention. Many times we have taken things for granted. We assume that taxpayers know but we have found invariably that they are not conversant. So what we have done is that we are trying to have more educational and publicity programmes and also offering services but the coverage may not be that extensive. But we are looking at new means to bring in this group. In the case of STD now we go to the employers and start explaining what they have to do, what are the roles they have to play, what are the mistakes they have done and what needs to be rectified. Because any mistakes on their part will be a mistake to us because it causes late posting, lots of duplication happens, unnecessary work generated. So these are the aspects we have been looking at.

Q: What about incentives for career development?

In this aspect what we are trying to do is people who have a good output as well as people who have been contributing towards the organisation, we do give them incentive by sending them for courses. The other thing we have been doing over the years in terms of career development is (the last 4/5 years), we have sent people for further enhancement of their academic qualification. These are people who are interested in contributing towards the organisation and also interested in enhancing their academic qualification, such as Masters degree and PhDs. In the 80's and 90's we have more people who have done post graduate courses and we hope in time they will form the core group that will bring changes to the organisation. Then we will have people who are academically qualified not necessary in taxation but also in other field and we hope they will form the succession group. So we have many people who have career development through that way.

The other way of career development is in terms of promotion because promotion is no more based on seniority.

Q: What are the plans of MIRB for people who have been serving for more than 20 years and have not gone for any academic courses and have been so dormant in the division where they are?

We have tried to create in this organisation a HRM unit and trying to look into this problem. We have now also called people who have been in the organisation for a

long time and yet has not gone for the advance course to attend those courses. We hope that in their last few years of service they could contribute and impart their knowledge. This is the recent phenomenon in the organisation.

In this organisation there are people who have been long in service and we are trying to create posts to promote people. The recently we have an interview for the people who have serve the organisation for more then 15 years and they are being interviewed.

Q: So how does this promotion base on merit comes in because people who have been serving for more than 20 years have been called for the interview while people who are equally good but serving less than that was not called. So where does the merit comes in?

So the merit comes in within that group itself. We can't go backward by saying that you have serve for 5 years and you are meritorious to be promoted. You can't promote a junior who is 5 years experience as compared to one who has 20 years experience. So we are looking within the group itself, so probably you are the most junior of the 20 years group and if you are good you will be on promotion. It is not the first on call. This is a bit difficult in public service and not like the private sectors.

Q: So do you see any changes whereby IRB is likely to select people base solely on merit like the private sector?

We could, since we now have move away from the government service to a corporate body. That could be in the by plan and we hope it is in the plan. Even if one person is promoted in that way, it could be an indication that we are promoting people base on merit.

Q: When you have internal audit coming in the division or the branch, does that affect the level of trust in this organisation, in term of you are closely monitoring the division or branch?

In terms of acceptance there is some problems. That is why we have been trying to tell the branches that it is better for us within our self to know the errors, know our

mistakes rather than wait for the third party to come. It is true that generally the branches takes the Quality division as outsiders, that is why we introduce the concept of Quality groups set up by them within their branch. Identify their own weakness. The idea of internal audit has to exist to ensure that there are internal control are there. We had problems, but it all depends on the approach we take, whether we want to be punitive or otherwise so when you become punitive then they will resist you.

But if come up with the concept that you want to help them to better themselves than it will work. You need to be a friend, while you find errors you also come with suggestion to improve. So it should not effect the level of trust provided they know your role and you are not coming there to find their fault. Because people will react, no one would like to be told that they are wrong but the manner the way you tell them that matter. So while needing to be a policemen, you must tell them how to improve them. We tell the management what are the branch problems because maybe our training is not good. And therefore we may suggest that these are the areas of training that we need to focus. We also may be suggesting that there may be imbalances of staffing in the branches, where some may be overstaffed while some may be otherwise.

You have to look at the internal audit at a realistic level and it is the question of approach that matters. I agree with you that we do have resistance but it all depends on how we approach the problem. The other thing that is important is the question of effectiveness is the audit. If we come up with a recommendation, the branch would want the recommendation to be implemented. So then comes the question of management commitment. So if the branch finds that you not only find their mistakes but work to solve your problem then they would accept you. Then distrust will become one of trust.

In the process we have become more intelligence, in the sense that for us it is cost effectiveness. Is it just nice for us to have you do 100 files and then we come in and detect your errors or is it better that you start your own programme yourself. We find that your own programme would be more meaningful than third party coming in.

What ever it is the final part is that the internal audit is part of the big team. We are trying to clean our own "act" and we want to improve ourselves. Because when the

auditor general raise up our matters then all of us are involved in answering the queries.

Q: You are focusing checks on the MIRB core business which is the assessment, what about other activities such as the investigation, how does the monitoring comes in since this division operates more in secrecy?

So far of investigation are coming in, we are checking on conformance to seculars. We have started such programme this year to see that they also comply with instructions. It has been so long that Investigation has been operating in isolation. So we check the administrative part of the investigation by conformance. Now we also do random check on investigation while the investigation work are being done.

In terms of technical examination we are also starting. In terms of our self accounting system and the financial aspect of how the branches are running. We are also going into computer audit and we are going to check on the computer technology unit to see that they are complying. So we have do technical examination, financial examination and the computer technology examination and so we have in fact enhance our role to have a bigger coverage.

Our approach towards the investigation is to do audit while the case is been done not at the completion stage like what it use to be. To create a check even before the case are being investigated would be better to ensures standards and meets the internal control standards.

Q: So with these new roles, changes in the external environment and the new developments that take place, how do you encourage people in this organisation to keep up with knowledge and these changes?

The way to keep up with knowledge and changes is through the use of office automation. A lot of information is going to be put through in that. The other way is through the way technical division plays their role in issuing guidelines. And the branch themselves can play the role by discussing at their level and identifying areas which are not comforting for them and bring it to headquarters.

The other thing that we are looking at is that people should self-improve and our CEO have been trying to emphasise that we are a highly technical department and we will be measured by our technical competency and each officer has a role to play. He must learn by himself, are you satisfied with what you are doing and will you want to further improve yourself. And if you further improve yourself that is a way of self career development also. You will be better than your friend and you stand a better chance. This will take time to change I honestly think so that it is not just a change but it has to be a change of the total culture (organisation culture). Basically the way I look at it is discipline wise we have the discipline, we have the basic knowledge, it is how polish these things. People outside there is a little advance compared to us so we have also want to come to that role in the sense that we are going through Office Automation, where we will be putting in all the seculars and incorporating so much information.

Q: So do you then see the big five as our competitors in terms of knowledge?

They could, in the sense that some of them may be very qualified and up to date than us but there is nothing wrong about we learning from them. Because to my mind is that the practitioner has an equal role to play and we bring them into our organisation and learn from them.

Q: So have MIRB thought about bringing them in?

Yes what we have done now is we have brought them in into dialogues with us. The way they behave and act they have equal responsibility to play like us. Sometimes they have not discharge their representation properly and these we have seen during audit observations. We have found their weaknesses in their representation and have not fulfilled their roles. In term of the self-assessment and the change from PY to CY, we will be bringing in them to help us part knowledge to public. They can play a role on that, because with self-assessment there will be heavy reliance on the accountants and tax practitioners on the part of taxpayers.

Q: So now the role has change?

Yes and in fact we are going to change ourselves going into functional. We cannot be in our traditional ways anymore. We are shifting ourselves from desk audit into field audit. This will take place within one of two years

Q: Mr A, how fast is MIRB responding towards the changes in the external environment?

The management is aware of the changes that go on in the organisation. We are responding keeping up with changes. In fact with office automation we are moving faster.... and with INTACTSG and computer audit. These are all done. If you walk into the branches, or any IRB offices, computers are easily available. Responses there are but how fast is the question? But the facts that we are reacting then the next question you might ask is are we proactive or reactive? We could be reactive, in some areas we may be proactive but generally I think we are reactive.

Q: Is it because there are still many bureaucratic features in this organisation?

Yes we still have, although we have been corporatise there are still bureaucratic features, you still have to conform to government rules and regulations, you need approval and things like that. I think it still takes sometimes for IRB to change to operate as though they are like the private organisation. In fact in the private organisation too they are still abide by certain rules at least by the board of directors.

Q: I find that in IRB, in audit and investigation especially, people are working as a team. Is it done out of necessity or is it part of the organisation's culture?

It is the organisation culture I think because we have always tried to create a team spirit like a family. That concept will help each other because the inadequacies of one people will be overcome by the adequacies of others. And there is sharing of knowledge and in the trade that we are in, there must be a sense of sharing of knowledge or otherwise non-of us learn. How informed are the staff? If you believe

in the open administration it is very important that all the staff knows where the organisation are heading.

Q: So how open is the management towards new ideas?

I think we are very open in the sense of the quality programme that we have implemented. Ideas are welcome and can come from anybody. The ideas actually come from the people who are doing the work. It is acknowledged and accepted and implemented. In some instances we have accepted especially in the quality group activities in the branches. They make their presentation and the management has been accepted, especially in Kota Kinabalu and Kuching.

Here we are racing against time and it is the question of prioritising our goals. What is our core business? With the legislative changes, every branch is very busy and we have shortage of staff so at times our focuses are not there. So when we focus so much on the operation problem then we tend to neglect other areas.

In the meetings everyone is given the opportunity to be heard, there is branch meeting. As long as we have this meeting and dialogue with staff then there is a sharing of power. We do not make unilateral decision, we discuss and hear others, hear their grievances and we solve the problem as a team. So there is a sharing of powers and there is a lot of delegation in terms we are giving them the opportunity to be heard.

Q: What about at the top management level, where you yourself are involve in the decision making process?

We also have meeting at HQ level we have regular monthly meetings. Invariably we have two conferences annually where all the branch heads are involved and matters of common interest are discussed, directions are given and people talked. It is then the question of how well the chairman received what you say and it is also the question of how well individuals are prepared to say what he wants. Or is he having reservation and then said that he has not been heard. It all depends on the people who form the meetings. Generally I think management have been very receptive to ideas. I don't think they have rejected anything no doubt direction are given and decision are finally made, there is a hearing and it depends on individual on how well he participate. Is he going to be a passenger in the meeting or is he going to be

participant? What I am trying to impress on you is that, avenues are there so it depends on how well one uses it.

Q: So how is decision made at the top management level meeting where you yourself are involved?

It is base on consensus most of the time. It is discussed, problem are shared. For example in the concept of PY (previous year) and CY (current year), the CEO has already told us her views on this matter. She hears what others have got to say and get it implemented. So we believe in the escalating of information. Today all of us (top management) have been invited to the HQ to be informed of what are the new ruling from the government on new changes, and then it is the responsibility of the head of branch and division to disseminate this information to their staff. Although the decision is finally made by the CEO generally there is a hearing, she still hears others views and there is not restriction on views and ideas.

Q: There are some senior managers who said that there are some kind of a 'fear culture' in this organisation, what do you think about that?

Fear culture it depends on how you interpret it, there are two things, either: are you afraid of the chairman or is the chairman prepared to listen to you? If you find that the chairman are prepared to listen to you I think to be honest to the organisation you must say what you want. So again is the question whether you want to be a passenger or participant it depends on you. The fear culture is probably always there because of the question of respect. You can respect the person but you need not fear the person.

Generally, I think people do not talked at meetings but they talked after the meetings. This is real but generally our meetings are open. But I can tell you that they are prepared to listen. I have attended meetings and I have said what I want to say. If I feel I should I say it if I have no ideas to contribute I keep quiet

Q: For the past few years I find that a number of experienced officers even the senior one have been leaving the organisation to join the private sector. So how does the management look in to this problem?

So in term of leaving the organisation, you can't stop any one from leaving. If you look back and reflect at five years back when most people left the organisation, we thought that there is going to be a vacuum but if you looked at the performance over the last five years we are better than before. Some people said that it possible because the economy was good but I think it is not just the economy but I believe it is peoples' contributions, the people who took over that have contributes.

Vacuum will always be there but it is the question of how you prepare people. Probably five years ago the succession was not clear. Now what the management are trying to do, we are trying to create succession group. In the next five years there will be a number of people leaving and there will be a gap. To fill the gap, people are now being trained to take over, a group that has come back from overseas and they are cadre group which will eventually take over. In terms of preparedness the present management are preparing people to take over.

Vacuums are always there. We always feel that we lost the experienced people to take over. Assuming that we have a very good programme transition it will be very smooth. Management at the moment are very aware of these problem and I know for sure we have now set up a group to look at the succession programme and to prepare people for HRD programme. We have not look at the HRM per se in a more formalise manner. That needs to be done.

In terms of career development, the last few years (1990's) there has been much career development. The fact that many people have been sent for further studies, young people will go and come back and remain with us, The have been one or two who have left us and this is a great disappointment because it is supposed to be our investment. We hope they will come back and contribute and not leave us.

Q: With the rapid changes inside and outside the organisation how does the management prepare people towards these?

The management has problem in preparing the people towards this mind shift. It must all start from the top management. It is a time consuming matters and cannot be done just over night. The fact that we have move from a department to board is a total paradigm shift. And we have to operate not like the way it use to be when we are a government department. If we did that then we are not being fair to our stakeholders. The fact that the government had been corporatised us are they are expecting us to perform better then we did as a government department so we can't have a departmental mentality. We have to be cost effective, cost conscious and we have to operate like the private organisation....because we are going to be measured by the government in terms of how effective we are in terms of collection of taxes and like wise each branch is going to be measured in that manner. And the mindset I think it takes sometimes to change.

Q: Do you think that this organisation is itself a learning organisation or has the potential to become one?

We have the potentials to be one. If you really look at our quality programme and we can see that we are better off then the other because we have the culture. The culture is here that, if you look at the discipline of our people, we have the discipline. Management must play a role not just the top management but all the management wherever they are. They must provide the leadership and the leadership must be a leadership by exemplar. They must be able to share knowledge with others. Here not everyone is intelligence. I think intelligence can be acquired, we must share and we must go on self-improvement. Many of our top management go abroad and when they come back they have to disseminate the knowledge.

APPENDIX IV

SAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION (MIDDLE MANAGER)

Name: Mrs. B
Category of Position: Middle Management

Q: What is the main reason of corporatising MIRB?

Definitely to increase efficiency. Hope to have more autonomy because the bureaucracy in government slows down the administrative process. We hope that with corporatisation there will be quicker decision-making and we will be able to proceed faster with the tax collection machinery.

Q: What are the changes you have observed since corporatisation?

Actually the changes are not really visible but there are a great move towards some changes. Which is in a way being hampered by the recent downturn of the economy. So it is still a short time frame to see visible changes. A lot of work is being done to restructure the organisation but I still think because of the recession, it slows down the process.

Q: What are the main challenges faces by MIRB today?

The challenge is still to collect the most revenue. We foresee some problem next year where revenue will be dropping. Our challenge then is how we address the problem of declining tax collection. We have to do something to stop this fall in revenue.

Q: What are the MIRB's plans in relation to its human resources?

It doesn't seem to see a very co-ordinated and proper system in place on human resource development. It is in bits and pieces and as and when they see the need they will send people for training. So there is no proper co-ordination in the career path of the employee

Probably after being a board this will be given more consideration and people will look into this area. It is one big area that needs to be look into. It is not a question of training in the formal sense but the indirect training of officers in calculating the values of an organisation....such as teamwork.

Q: So has the vision and mission stated in terms of the HR being materialised so far?

It is wrong to say that there is none. The absorption and inculcation of this value is there definitely.we do have talk, speeches by the top management in trying to inculcate these values but whether it is really coming through. This is not sure. This organisation as compared to other organisation base from what I hear from others, though I do not have the experience of working with other organisation, we have a good start. Meaning I think this is one of the departments, which have a discipline workforce.

People are committed to their work. They do the works that are given to them. In their small narrow world they would do their work but what I think is that they fail to look at the bigger picture especially with the grade 7 officer. They should be able to see the bigger picture. That area we have not been successful. On the whole our organisation is one of the organisation, which have been one of a higher performer and committed to work.

(The researcher feels that what the interviewee is trying to say is that the MIRB work force are a very discipline work force and very much dedicated to their work. However the MIRB staff fail to see their problem in a holistic view. They tend to be confined to their small problem and failed to see the bigger picture of the problem)

Q: Who plans the training programme for the employees?

Well at the moment it is entrusted to the National Tax Academy. we have what is called a committee for curriculum and examination chaired by the DG/CEO herself. They meet from time to time and where there is a need they would review the syllabus and methods of teaching. Even the examination papers are vetted by this board.

Q: Are the training needs of MIRB affected by the changes in the external environment?

A lot of changes have been done, and the changes are continuous process. We have special courses tailored for the people in the MIRB. Motivational courses...this is done because we realised there is a need for such courses. However the technical staff have to under go rigorous training. These are all technical courses but they are also exposed to the social aspects and development of individuals and skill training.

(I am not sure if the respondent is answering my question from her answer.)

Q: There are comments about the technical courses for being too theoretical. What do you think of this?

There need to be a certain amount of theory being taught. I would agree that we need more case studies and more practical approach should be brought in the curriculum.The training here is on the job. So in class you are given the theory then you are back to office for the practice aspect. While theories are being taught, they could also bring their practical problem in class so it provides both scope of theory and practice.

Q: To what extent is the informal training (desk training) is important in preparing them for their work?

It is important and very useful.

Q: Which is more important, is it the formal or informal training?

I think we need both. Definitely in certain areas, such as audit, understanding of certain industries we need both kind of training. You gain knowledge of tax principles through a formal training so the practical aspects are when you apply those principles in office. Training in areas such as field audits needs further development, which is yet not developed very well. officers are largely still not expose to real audit situation. What happen is that officers just learn from the experience of their seniors in the audit team.

It is always in the case of our training, you will be guided by a more senior officer. *(Later on the interviewee clarified that senior means she is referring to those people who have been long in the service and not in rank.)* Being senior they may have encounter the problem during their service so they are the one who can provide you the support..... because we have a very hierarchical system. You find that you always have a group leader. So when you come into problem, you will never be left alone.

Because we are moving into a more flatter system, we would like the officer to be more independent. Again I think the nature of the work is such that it is still experience is important. You can't be a good officer within 2/3 years of working. You just have to apply all the principles you learn to the real world. You find that the grade 7 officer is always doing a submission asking for endorsement of decision in problematic cases. So we are always asking ourselves whether this officers can make unilateral decision by themselves. Do you really need a group leader checking their decision because now we have this pyramid where you check this little decision?

Q: You mentioned about the hierarchical structure of this organisation, is it a barrier to learning in this kind of structure?

I think there is a barrier to learning because you are not given the independence in making decision. So you don't take it seriously because there will be someone who is going to check it. But the benefit and advantage of this system is the check and balance. That is the main thing. Because our organisation is so vulnerable and all kind of allegation can be made on us, so there is always a check and balance. You are not alone in making decision. So now the question that may come in is that some people will say that you don't trust the officers.

Q: You say that there is a move from hierarchical structure in to a flatter one, if this happen, is there any implication on learning?

I think it is better because when you tear down the level of supervision, you save time and increase the speed of decision making. But you have to empower the officers to make decision, You can have cut off level, where for example they can sign for RM500, 000 and below. They can do it but we must have internal audit.

Q: Are you suggesting that the officer must be given more discretion?

Yes

Q: Are there any incentives given for passing the advance course?

At the moment this is not done. ...no policy decision but there have been proposals.

Q: If you observed the failure of the advance course is higher than the preliminary course. Why is that so?

I think it is still the individual attitude. It is not the exam are difficult but because people tend to think that exam are archaic. But we feel by giving exam we try to tell them to be serious with the training. Where as in the preliminary course, it is compulsory for the purpose of confirmation. So people take it seriously to pass it.

Q: So do you think some kind of incentive should be given to those who passed the advance course?

Yes I feel there should be some kind of incentives. In the old days it use to be a promotional criteria.we have been one of the department where by the turnover have been high too, although it has slow down in the last few years. But ever since I joined service (in the 70's) the turnover has been high and we have been constantly training people.

One of the move towards corporate body is to stop this brain drain in a way. The prospect outside is good.

Q: Even after corporatisation you find people leaving the organisation, even the senior one, why is this happening?

Even with monetary incentive you still can't stop people from leaving. I think it is the work system that needs to be changed. We don't seem to move fast enough that's the main thing. Definitely need more restructuring to take place...some kind of restructuring in the process of work.

Q: Do you see any career development for tax officers in MIRB?

I don't think there is much now as it is.

Q: Do you yourself have any plan to leave and joined the private sector?

Difficult question to answer. ...because it varies from time to time. If there is opportunity out there I may tried it out especially when my children are grown up. That is why I embarked on this MBA programme and after the programme I may want to do something different.

(Currently, the respondent is enrolling on an MBA programme at the local university as a part time at her own expense.)

Q: What motivates you at the workplace?

I am a very self-motivated person. So I don't want to comment on what is going on outside me because it is so easy to find fault with the system. When I can I do make my observation and I do raise my observation even in formal environment, I do. By large over the years you realised that your comments may not be taken in a good light so you just draw back. And at the end of the day I enjoy doing things that challenge me and myself. For example if they gave me a little job outside my duty list, I may wonder why but then I try to read up and challenge myself.

I don't think I am completely anti the system because the system is good in so many ways and it has developed me. There are some flaws and there will be time that it will be addressed but you can't do it overnight.

Q: As a tax officer do you think you have a lot to learn?

Oh dear, it is a lot to learn even after 22 years. There are so many things. with my nature of work I now come across Double Taxation Agreement (DTA) which I compiled since 1974 but have never actually touched it. Even at my level I still need to learn. You can't know everything. I like to be in the draft committee because you're expose to many things, which are treated, so trivial but actually is very important.

Recently we amended the Petroleum Act and 2 experts in petroleum put up the draft amendment but we (the draft committee) have to go through every word, understand the industry and gave our views.

Q: Since you yourself are not familiar with the issue so how do you go about trying to understand the whole process?

By discussion and through reading. The discussion itself, is a good avenue to learn. Even the lawyers and legal people who sit there they are not conversant themselves. They may know the legal language but the technical part of the job they may not know. That is why we have people from various expertise in the team. The experts explain and we learn from each other.

Q: What is the function of the technical division in the Headquarters?

Mainly involved in the legislation aspect of the ITA and all other Act that we administer. And we also give the technical interpretation of the law and handling of appeals before it appears in the tax commissioner or the high court.

Q: Does the division and branches contact the technical division in a formal or informal way?

In both ways.definitely the formal is encouraged. ...because we will like to have the full fact of the case to make decision. Without the facts we will not be able to make a good decision.

Q: Do you learn because of the job, personal development or for prospect outside the organisation?

Definitely first for the job then personal development and also other prospects.

Q: Is there any blockage of learning that inhibit people from learning?

They have not looked into the career development of the officers.

Q: Do you see the tax practitioners outside as our competitors in term of knowledge?

I don't think you would say that they are better off than us. It is just that they look at tax from a different perspective and the loopholes of it.

.... I fully agree to this smart partnership concept and in fact, it is going on now. I feel that this concept has not been exploited to the fullest. I think more could be done in this area. I disagree with the idea that says we are different from the practitioners out there. I don't think so.

Q: Do you think everyone in the organisation is sharing knowledge?

You can't really say everyone but the nature of our job is such that you need to share knowledge because each situation is so different and we are only taught the principles. We are dealing with law, which can be subjective, and many interpretations. So many circulars. So you need to share knowledge and information before you can be a good assessor. I don't think you can be a good tax officer just by going through the training and doing your work. Simple things like understanding the industry, you need to know though it is simple....

Q: Have you come across people who do not share knowledge in this organisation?

Not in my experience. I still think that knowledge acquiring is two ways, is not just one way. You can't just expect just to come to you but sometimes you need to solicit knowledge, meaning you have to get the information out of the person by your persistence and your questions. That is what I notice with the younger generation (junior officers), they are not all out there to get knowledge but rather preferred to be told to be spoon feed

Q: How do you encourage them (especially the younger officers) in this organisation to seek knowledge and be self motivated to learn?

This is inculcated in the talk/training about the importance of knowledge....we encouraged them to read during training but it is difficult because they have a lot to

do and it is so task orientated. But if a person is motivated enough he will go all out to seek knowledge.

Q: How do you impart knowledge in this organisation?

Through interaction with boss/peers.previously in National Tax Academy I teach, so formally I am imparting knowledge.

Q: Are you given enough autonomy and discretion in performing your job?

Yes...of course within the confinement of my jurisdiction. I can't go beyond that but if I want to express a point of view I am free to do so. At the end of the day, what I submit to my boss, he may want to disagree with me, but that's my view and it goes down in writing. Does not mean that I have to follow his point of view all the time.

**Q: Is there a commitment to learning in this organisation?
(Referring to the management as well as the employees)**

You can see some big move that we must acquire more knowledge but whether down the line people are committed is a question mark.....I think down the line it is not very obvious.....

Some people just out of sheer laziness would rather check with a friend then going all out to seek/check the circular or manual. On management part there are some flaws too but the last few years it has been given greater emphasis. But the call to learning has always been there in the top management speeches, talks, newsletter, and bulletins. It has to get into your being and the commitment has to go on.

Q: There are some comments down the line that the amount of learning and work in this organisation does not commensurate with pay and there is no career development. Could this be the reason why people retaliate and just carry on to survive in the organisation?

Could be, there are these aspects that have not been looked into. I always thought about suitability of a person to a job. Different officers are suitable for different kind of job.

People should not be complaining about monetary reward, when we were in the department we were underpaid. With the board there shouldn't be a complaint anymore.

Career development.....has not been looked into. Some people may not be suited in the work they are doing. Management is responsible to find out who's suitable in the job.

This organisation has a lot of teamwork. So when we do work in the team, you sometimes forgot about individuals. You only think of all the various groups in the division and we look at the performance in the group and the individuals are sometimes forgotten in a way.

Q: So this working as a team, do MIRB do it out of necessity or is it the culture of the organisation?

I think it is the necessity of the organisation and also the culture. When I came in the 1970's all the groups are there and we are competing among different group to ensure production target are met. It is a culture, it is already there. I like that feeling to be part of the group and having to clear files and making sure that the production target are met on time. We never have to work for individual but more for the group.

Q: Would you describe MIRB as a learning organisation or seeking to become one in future?

I think in the future, not now yet. I don't think message on the importance of learning and a learning organisation has really got down to every level of staff. Not that it has not been told/mentioned but the fact that it is not easy to change people. There should be more accelerated effort towards this.

APPENDIX V

SAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION (TAX OFFICER)

Name: Miss C
Category of Position: Ordinary Tax Officer (Grade 7)
Special Post

Background:

The interviewee is a tax officer who is doing investigation job in MIRB. She is an Investigation Officer who have been in the Investigation and Intelligence division for 7 years and have served MIRB more than 15 years. She was actually promoted to Assistant Director but the post have been weeded since 1994 as a result of restructuring in MIRB. She was given to me as a sample by her boss because of her extensive knowledge and capabilities as an Investigation Officer.

Her stories on her experience working in MIRB:

I was put under a senior officer. I study my job from the senior officers. How they do their work and basically you also have to do your home work first. How they conduct their interview? What kind of tone to take? You cannot be arrogant with taxpayers or passed your remarks. You have to maintain your cool even if they lose their temper.

We do a surprise raid. They do not know that you are coming there, you have to practice a lot of caution. You have to be reasonably calm and the senior officers with us will observe us and slowly it will come to you.

I am now 7 years in investigation, now I am having 2 Investigation Officer (IO) under me. Basically I teach them the techniques and what are the things to do. Then we observed how they performed the interview. After the taxpayer left we would tell them, your approach is okay but you could have done better. We give the pointers and then remind them how they can be more effective in future.

Apart from that you can ask from everybody. You don't have to confine yourself to a particular person. You can approach the bosses or any other officers in the investigation centres.

Apart from that we have courses - computerised accounting. We are also exposed to the latest tactics employed by the tax evaders - like transfer pricing on the international frontiers. So far as we are concern we are not as up to date like Australia, USA or even Japan for that matter. Because their machinery are much more advance but we are learning because sooner or later due to international trade we have this problem. We have done a few international cases where the contract officer has done it with us.

Some of the courses organised by the NTA is good. We also have intelligence courses conducted by the PULAPOL (Police Training Institute) and the ACA (Anti Corruption Agency). ACA teach us on the technique of observation because before we go for raid, we do surveillance work. So they teach you how to do surveillance. However our intentions are different from the police department and the ACA. But these techniques are important for our *prima facie* case.

Q: I understand that you have formal training given by NTA and other bodies and you also have desk training. So which one do you find more useful?

For investigation you need more desk training. You may have all the academic knowledge but if you cannot visualise then you are not effective. Desk training is effective but you must have the prior background knowledge first. The Investigation Officer when they first come they do not have the formal training from NTA. They go to the desk training first and later they go for these courses to help them gain the experience.

Q: Are you happy with the pay structure offered by MIRB?

I think with the board's pay, it is okay.

This is necessary skill, which is required for you to perform the job. So I don't think it is necessary to reward in terms of incentive or allowance.

Q: Do you find the course difficult?

No I enjoy the course. I did English literature as a major, I do not have accounting background. I find the course extremely useful

Q: How do you see yourself in this organisation in 10 years time?

May be I will be here or may be I will go out of this division. It depends where they want me to be.

Q: What are the chances of career development for people in grade 7 in this organisation?

This organisation is like a pyramid, there is nothing much that can be said. There are many of us fighting for the position. I think if you are happy with the job there will not be any complaints. Of course everyone would like to have promotions and go up if there is a vacancy.

Q: Do you have any intention of joining the private sector?

I am happy her and I don't think so.

Q: What motivates you in workplace?

I like it here. Here it is teamwork. There are a lot of what you call comrade feeling. You stand for each other, we look up to each other and we have fun time together It is very different from other division.

Q: Here I find that you are working in a very big team, a lot bigger than the audit team. Do you find it difficult working in such a big team?

We do our man power planning. When you go to a big organisation, you need that kind of man power. We have to create an impression upon taxpayer that we are serious. Unlike audit, investigation is a surprise element, we go there we have warrant, we do the search. Not like audit where taxpayer is informed and they give you all their books.

Q: Working in investigation involved a lot of secrecy. Officers tend to very cautious here. I observed IOs locked their doors every time they leave their room. How would you describe the level of trust or distrust in this division?

No not at all. We trust our officers. But in investigation taxpayers come to our room. Anything can happen we are very cautious because we do not want any documents missing. Most of the documents belong to taxpayers, we have to make sure that we return back to them. We also have to protect the anonymity of taxpayers. We also have the tax agent coming in or even the taxpayers staff who come to look at their records, so many things could happen, e.g. taxpayer could be blackmail. It has nothing to do with trust, we don't have that kind of feeling among ourselves.

Q: Is learning important for you in this organisation?

Yes

Q: In what way?

It will help you improve....there are so many new things, with computerised and digitalised industries, you have to update yourself. You have to understand the industry. If you are ignorant when you go before a raid you will make a fool of yourself. Taxpayer can see you through. When you ask questions you must create an impression that you know how they operate. There may be some areas that you don't understand and it is nothing wrong asking the taxpayer to explain because may be the business is not carried out in its usual norms. But again your knowledge is important.

Q: What are your sources of learning?

We have our resource centre here which is well equipped with all the tax journals. Some of us when they go through the tax journals and found anything useful will pin up on the board for everyone to read. The library in the headquarter is also useful. We study the case law. Basically when the taxpayer refuses your findings then the ball is in the court. Then you will have to do a lot of readings, you have to have a better understanding of the case law. If you don't read and update your knowledge,

your case may be good but you may not be able to present it very well. It depends a lot on how much you want to equip yourself and read.

Taxpayers are smart especially those who have ex-IRB Investigation Officers as their agents, the taxpayer will be advised accordingly. They will test you to the limit, to your endurance. That is also a challenge, they are testing you that what you have found is right and you have to go all out to prove your findings. So you must have a team mind and you must be ready to do your extra homework.

Q: In the process of dealing with taxpayer, agents and the tax practitioners, is there a process of learning?

Yes. One of the important things when interviewing a taxpayer is to listen. When you listen there might be a lot of things he is giving away. The taxpayer has a lot to say and if it concurs with the general opinions you have to accept.

Q: Do you learn for the job, personal development or for career prospect outside the organisation?

I learn for all the reasons.

Here I am my own boss but I must plan my work well.

Q: Is it true that many say investigation is a stressful job?

It is a stressful job. They are also human beings, it is difficult when they breakdown in front of you and at the same time you also have a target to achieve in this organisation.

In investigation when we raid we want taxpayers to pay what is due. We do not want to squeeze them to the extent that they will be out of business. If they are out of business they don't pay tax and it is bad for the economy and our case is stuck.

Q: Do you think IRB should facilitates the personal development learning of the staff?

Yes they should, not all of us have the time to go for personal development on our own. When individuals gain department gain.

Q: What stops learning in this organisation?

I think it is personal. It depends on individual satisfaction. If you are happy with your environment, you want to improve and learn. It is important that a person is happy with his work environment.

Q: Is working as a team the organisation culture or necessity?

It is an organisation culture in IRB, where we have been always doing things together.

Q: Do you see the tax practitioners especially the big five as your competitor in terms of knowledge?

I think so. They have special division and units. We lack the expertise and yet out there they are so specialised. Supposing in land business, they would have one person who knows everything and he is so specialised. We can see that when they present their case. Sometimes I think we are jack of all trade, we lack the skill and expertise.

Here we go by experience, the longer you stay, the more people you meet, the more cases you do the better you are. Certain enforced knowledge will depends on individual initiative. They out there certainly have one upper step than us.

Q: Do you think you are given enough discretion to perform your job?

Yes we have rules and regulations.

Q: Do you think everyone is sharing knowledge?

Yes but of course we try to maintain secrecy of a case at all time. This has been an unspoken rule, before a case is taken we don't talk around about it. Only after the case are taken then we do discuss, in fact we have to have the discussion with peers for opinions but we are discrete, we don't go around unnecessarily.

Q: Is there people in this division who are not sharing knowledge with each other?

Frankly in this division there is none. We don't have such people. Of course each of us have our own idyoscrancies but yes we do work very well as a big team.

On the day of the raid, we don't care about your rank, be it you are a junior or a senior, you do work like a clerk or an office boy would do. The important thing is you work as team to make the case work.

Q: Do you voice out your disagreement?

We have monthly meetings. Not only voice out but we volunteer information. Each one of us are given the chance to trash out problem and difficulties we have in our work.

Q: Who is responsible in imparting knowledge?

The 2 head of the centres and the deputy. I am quite senior here and I do have some trainees under me. You can also ask anyone of us.

Q: How long do put the trainee under check?

About a year. The new IO will observe how the seniors conduct the interview.

Q: Are there new officers making mistakes?

Yes you can't help it but usually it is not glaring enough. Being observant is important, this is a learning process.

Q: Do you have access to the senior management?

Yes

Q: Is the communication formal?

Most of the time it is informal. In investigation we have to have access to our superiors at all time.

APPENDIX VI

SAMPLE OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTION (GROUP INTERVIEW)

Name: L32, L3, L13

Category of Positions: Tax Officers (Grade 7)

Q: What are the changes that have occurred since corporatisation of MIRB?

L32: There are not many changes in the style of management. The only obvious change is the pay structure but other than that there is not much.

L3: Now we are more concerned about time management and cost management. We are also more concern on the maximising the collecting of revenue.

L13: I see that there are not many changes. It looks good from the outside but actually internally we still have many problems. Our HRM is still not progressing, we are still at the previous level.

Q: Is the training sufficient to prepare a tax officer for the job?

L32: Theoretically it is sufficient but however the nature of the job in MIRB is in such a way that things are changing very fast. So you may have been working for many years but your experience may not be sufficient to prepare you for the job. The training is very theoretical but it is necessary. The courses are not sufficient because it teach you the very basic. No detail courses are offered but the fact that the nature of our job is very broad.

L13: MIRB has a very broad perspective. In each division you are working you tend to require different knowledge. So I think the training academy should structure their courses so as to meet these requirements.

Q: What about the informal training?

L3, L13 and L32: I think the informal training is important to the tax officers. Both kind of training are equally important. The formal training provides the basics while the informal training complements.

Q: Do you see the tax practitioners as your competitors in terms of knowledge?

L3: To me I see them as competitors. Personally I think I have to learn and I have to be very fast. The development of knowledge among tax practitioners is very fast and we at times can not match them. For example in every annual budget, the giant tax practitioner took the role of explaining the interpretation of the amendments and new laws, which we are, the one supposes to be doing the job. However, I feel that our respond is very slow, often they are the one who is more active than we are.

L32: Our department is rather slow in terms of interpreting the new tax law. I think we should be ready at all time to be the first provider of the new law and knowledge on tax matters.

L13: I think we lack co-ordination in terms of distributing knowledge and we are not capable of responding to the external environment fast enough. The way we generate and transfer knowledge is still not up to an efficient level. I think it is not wrong for us to learn from taxpayers and tax practitioners.

Q: What is the kind of knowledge needed for tax officers?

L32: I think when we move towards the self assessment our role will change, we will be taking the role of the tax practitioners and they will be taking ours. It is therefore very important that we equipped ourselves with accounting knowledge and in such cases auditing is very important.

L3: Today the trend is towards creative accounting and most business out there do not use the physical ledger and the normal account book. Everything is computerised and therefore you must equip yourself with IT knowledge.

Q: Is everyone in your division and branch is sharing knowledge with each other?

L3 and L32: Yes generally we do but they may be there are some that are a little bit selfish. On the whole sharing of knowledge is not a problem in this organisation.

Q: Who is responsible in imparting knowledge in this branch?

L3: It is the group leader. However I think it should be the head of the branch. Well if we have any problem we have to go through the layers, first to the deputy group leader, then the group leader, the SAD and so on.

L32, L13: If the case of tougher cases then we shall refer to the technical division. In our daily work the role of peers is also important. We co-operate with each other and we discuss at that level before going any further.

Q: Who do you think should be responsible on your personal development learning?

L13: I think the leaders should be responsible. We should have the human resource division, which is responsible for planning of the staff development.

Q: Are you happy with the pay structure offered by MIRB?

L32: It is average but acceptable at this point. Our pay structure is still very much like the government scheme.

Q: Do you think that the advance course should be a criterion for promotion?

L3: I think they should because the course takes a lot of our time and by relating it with promotion or increment will induce us to pass the exam and learn better.

Q: Do you have any plan to leave the organisation?

L3: Well it depends, if I am not happy here I may choose to go else where.

L13: For my age I think it is unlikely that I will leave the organisation because I have been here quiet long. But personally I am not happy with the career development in this organisation.

L32: I think job satisfaction is important in a person career life. Salary is just one of the factor but there are many others that gives satisfaction of working. For me working in the company branch in some way do motivate me because of the higher level job assigned to me.

Q: How would you describe the communication process in MIRB?

L32, L3, L13: The way I see it in MIRB is more of top-down communication. Very rare do we have the two-way communications. Sometimes the top management refuse to listen to the people down below, just because they have a lot of experience that does not mean that the ideas of the younger officers are irrelevant. The attitude of the senior management has to change, to bring about changes in this organisation.

Q: How does one voice out their grievances when they are not satisfied with the management?

L32. L3, L13: We back biting...(everyone laughs) I'm joking. But basically we let go our dissatisfaction among ourselves. It is very difficult to talk to the people up there. We depends on formal meeting with our superior but as I said the communication is more of one way.

Q: Is it the top level or the middle level that effect the communication process?

L13: I think we have communication problem across all levels. However I feel that good communication practice must begin from the top then it will penetrates across all levels.

Q: Do feel that you are being trusted in performing your job?

L3: However in this branch we do not have trust problem. We are given the trust to do our job and not monitored closely. In terms of discretion also I think we are given the full authority to exercise it with the legal framework.

Q: Then how is that in the communication aspect this branch has a lot of problems?

L13: The communication problem is related to accepting opinions and changing the work process. For example when we suggest that certain changes has to be done in work process they are very sceptical.

Q: Do they give their reasons for not accepting?

L13: They do and they give their opinions but we cannot argue that much but rather have to accept it.

Q: Do you think working, as a team is a necessity or culture of this organisation?

L32: I think it is our work culture and it is also a need that we work as a team.

Q: What can you learn from the audit team?

L32: Of course we can learn a lot from the audit team. We can observe the taxpayers compliance and from these activities it will enrich our experience and help us to prepare us towards the self-assessment.

L3: Learning every aspect of the business is very important and it is through audit activities that we can learn and understand more about the nature of the business.

Q: Does the audit team leader impart any knowledge to other team members?

L13: Of course, because before we go for audit we would have a thorough discussion of the case and here the learning is two ways. Not only we as team members are

learning from the team leader but he or she will also learn from us because we would have to deploy everyone's experience to make the team successful.

Q: Does your job lead to learning?

L32, L3, L13: In taxation, the tax law changes every year and sometimes even the tax structure change. Changes in the business and development outside the organisation have a lot of effect on our job in this organisation which requires us to keep on learning and update our knowledge. We also have to keep up ourselves with the practitioners outside the organisation.

Q: So do you learn for the job, personal development or for future prospect outside the organisation?

L3, L13, L32: We have to learn for the job first because if we are to rely only on the training given, it is insufficient to enable you to do the job. So you have to learn a lot of things on your own to enhance your knowledge.

L32: I also learn for personal development because I meet a lot of people and I have to know what is going on outside and the latest development.

Q: What makes learning difficult for you in this organisation?

L32: What makes learning difficult in this organisation is the struggle between quantity and quality. When the management emphasis on the quantity of production, the quality aspect will be ignored even at the slightest chance. As officers we do not want our files to be accumulated and then face some consequences. As a result we cannot spend too much time trying to learn and allow our production to lag. We are in fact in dilemma when it comes to the question of quantity versus quality.

L13: Personally I have to balance the need to produce quality work and the need to achieve the quantity. I have to set a target. In such situation, my learning is limited due to the circumstances. If I want to learn then I would have to put my own effort. I feel that if I take workload as a reason not being able to learn, I think I am at the losing end. So in spite of the workload I feel that my learning is important for me.

L3: They covered all my points.

Q: How much can you learn from each case file and to what extent can you applied to other case?

L32: Technically the cases are the same but depending on how the accountants present it to us. So we must be able to look at the case from various perspectives. When it comes to application, definitely cases within the same nature of business shares the same similarity.

Q: What is your source of learning in MIRB?

L32: Experience, peers, interaction with taxpayers. By interaction I mean when taxpayers submit their case and to reconcile the difference of opinions between us we would produce counter arguments. We learn from them these way. They submit their case law and we rebut with our case law. It is not all the time that we are right because they can be right too but we have to balance it.

L13: We make decision base on what ever facts we have at the point decision is made, but when they are not satisfied and appeal then they would have to produce complete evidence. We are flexible in the sense that we do not all the time reject their appeals. It depends how effective the taxpayer present his case and the merit of the case.

Q: Do you think MIRB is a learning organisation?

L3: I think we can be a learning organisation, but it depends how effective we remove the blockages of learning in the organisation. It also depends on the individuals in this organisation, how receptive they are towards learning.

L32: I think in order to learn in this organisation we have to make personal sacrifices, where one has to use his time outside the working hours to learn, this will help us. Learning in this organisation is not something dormant.

Q: Will your learning helps you more in this organisation or outside the organisation?

L13: I think it will help your career outside the organisation if you are looking for it. The implementation of self- assessment will give a lot of opportunities for the people in this organisation to join the private sector or the big five for that matter.

Q: Do you think MIRB should emphasis on developing a learning culture in this organisation?

L32: I think we should. The problem is that there is always a different of opinion between the top management and us.

APPENDIX VII

OBSERVATION REPORT

INVESTIGATION AND INTELLIGENCE TEAM

1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

DATE: 17/12/1998

DAY: THURSDAY

TIME: 8.30AM - 4.30 PM

SIZE OF TEAM: 27 INVESTIGATION OFFICERS (IO)
THE HEAD OF INVESTIGATION CENTRE
DEPUTY DIRECTOR GENERAL (HEADQUARTER)

TARGET: PUBLIC LISTED COMPANY X

OBSERVED: TEAMWORK, TEAM LEARNING, CO-OPERATION AND
COMMUNICATION.

I appeared at the Kuala Lumpur Investigation & Intelligence Centre at 8.15 am. There were 5 investigation officers from another Investigation and Intelligence Centre (Shah Alam Centre) who came to assist the Kuala Lumpur team for that day. Nobody knows where they were going for the raid except for the head of KL centre and the two officers in charge of the case. Working in such a big team is nothing new for them. At 8.45 am everyone enters the meeting room. Today the Deputy Director of Investigation and Intelligence Division at the headquarter joins the team.

The head of KL centre begins the session with a very brief speech and his advice is that the team should try as much as possible to break the case on the very day. 'Breaking the case' is a jargon use for the Investigation team where it means that they are able to catch the taxpayer red handed and thus able to issue a protective assessment at the very instant.

The Investigation Officers then took over from the Head of Centre to brief the team on the plan, strategy and logistic for the day. The profile and activities of the company was given in the form of handouts. Areas of discrepancy and suspicion base on the intelligence work prior to the day were made known to the whole team. The raid involves the building of the parent company, its subsidiaries company, the company's auditor and the house of the main director of the parent company. Potential areas of evasion were also identified and the teams are advised to probe on those areas. The officer in charge of the case, briefed on the logistic arrangement and the big teams were broken down into smaller teams of two to four officers depending on the difficulty of the job. I was not assigned specifically to any particular team but was allowed to move freely among the many small teams.

At the end of the briefing all the officers was invited to ask questions, to give ideas and suggestions. A full detail of the company's account was also run through in the meeting. The briefing took about half an hour. As soon as the briefing was over it is a normal procedure that no one leaves the building or make any phone calls. Everyone then moves to the coffee room where a heavy breakfast was provided.

2. CONVERSATION WITH THE DEPUTY DIRECTOR GENERAL (DDG)

I sat with the DDG and managed to ask her a few questions during the coffee break. I asked her why she had joined the team today? She said that she had just been promoted and posted to this division and investigation work is really something new for her. All her experience in MIRB previously was from the Petroleum Division so she felt that it would be a good experience that she joins the task force of the investigation to learn the job on the ground and from the team. For that reason she is here today.

3. THE INVESTIGATION PROCESS

At about 10 am the whole team moves in a convoy towards their respective places. The movement of the whole team was often towards a synchronised pattern. A team of three IO went to the director's house while two IO went to the auditor's office and the rest went to the parent company's office where all the subsidiaries office are situated in the same building. Each smaller team is connected to the main team on the mobile phone. As soon as they enter the company's building and get hold of the director, the sub-teams disperse accordingly to the respective division of the company with no permission required.

While the more senior IO are involved in the interrogation of the Company's Managing Director, other smaller teams begin their job as planned. In half an hour time the Company's solicitor appears in the scene but stood there more as an observer as far as legality is concerned. At noon when the interrogation was over the senior IO join the other teams on inspection. A full inspection on the company main and subsidiaries account was done. The case gets more complicated as they go deeper into the company's account. Because the director did not surrender, a closer examination has to be done. Each team who has completed their job would join the other team depending on the need of each team. Any team which come across any difficulties or problems would consult the senior IO and the IO in charge to seek for advise. Decision has to be made instantly. Time was a crucial matter in their job because they have to make correct and fast decision.

The consultation process between the members of the team was very intense and rapid because decision had to be made on the spot. I spoke to one of the tax officer, It was quiet a disappointment for everyone because it was getting more difficult to break the case on that day. As the inspection progress the case gets more complicated, which was beyond their expectation. The case expanded as more

information was discovered. Most IO that I talked to admitted that this is one of their worst cases. I spoke to Mr. E who is a senior member of the team and he told me that they need various skills in the team to be successful. He admitted that he is not an expert in accounts. In his case he said that, because he is not excellent in his accounting skills, his strategy was more of persuasive which mean he would coax the taxpayer to co-operate willingly. He also said that each IO have their own way of dealing the case and they need a blend of all expertise to solve a case:

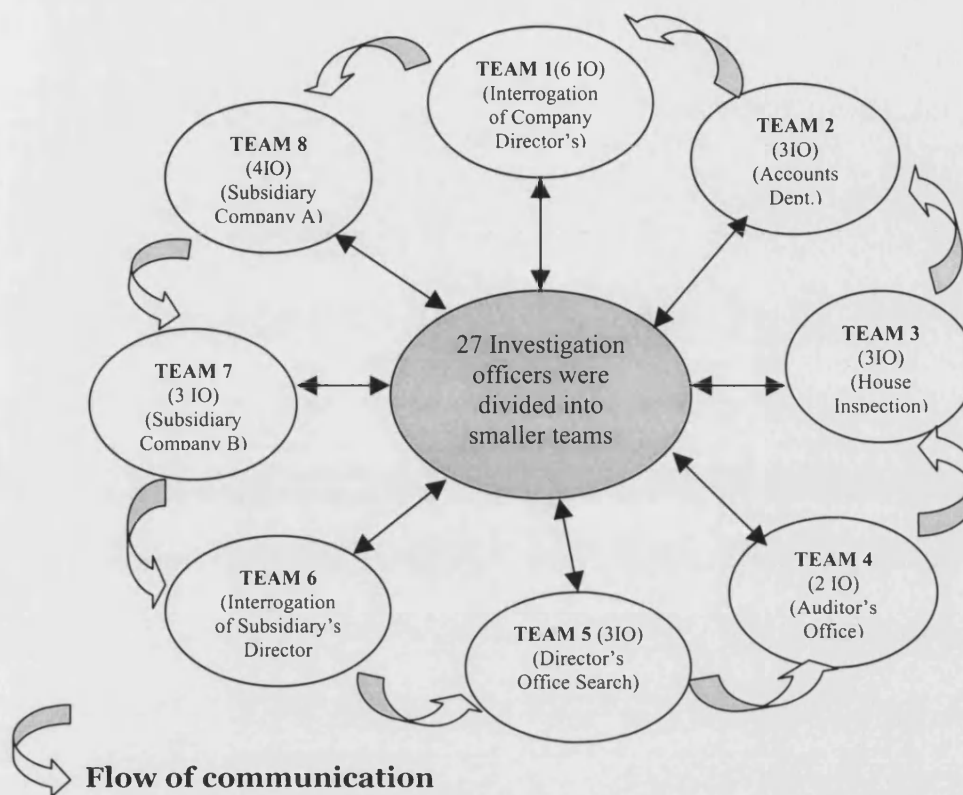
“I am not very good in my accounting knowledge but my tactic in investigation is more of persuasion....I use psychology to persuade taxpayers to co-operate. I leave the accounting part to my other team mates who are good in it.”
(Eo4)

Mr. T who was interrogating the subsidiary company's director felt so tense when the director refuses to submit that evasion has occurred. In several occasion the taxpayer was reminded that if any discrepancies was discovered there would be no mercy as he has failed to co-operate. I moved from one team to another examining how the team performs their duties. Although my presence on that day was supposed to be a passive observer, I end up helping them inspect the subsidiary account. It looks like I become more of participant observer. I was able to move freely from one team to another observing how they worked and communicate with each other.

The whole team decided to finish the inspection for the day at 4.30 PM. By then the company's records and accounting books were loaded into two four-wheel drive vehicle taken back to the Investigation centre for further examination. The taxpayer (Managing Director of the Company) and his auditors will be called to office to explain on all the discrepancies sported.

3. OBSERVED BEHAVIOURS

How the teams was organised is shown in the figure below:



They began with one big team and then it is broken into smaller teams. During the investigation in progressed the team would concentrate on the assigned area of investigation and the team that have finished their job would joined other teams to assist. Teams that work at other sites would later join the team in the main site. Discussion and consultation on any doubts of the case are discussed on the spot by referring to the expertise, seniors, peers and the senior ranking officers presence on that day. There was a free flow of communication between individuals and across teams. At the end of the day the small teams consolidate back into a bigger team in trying to reconcile their case.

4. CONCLUSION

The work of the Investigation officers is very stressful. Their performance is evaluated base on the revenue and back duties that they manage to collect. The number of case settled was immaterial as much of the focus is on the revenue collected from the case. Because of the large manpower involved in each case, they have to be very cost effective in the sense that the rate of return of each case has to be above one million RM (Malaysian currency). Each IO tries as much to help the IO in charge for the day because the whole team felt responsible for each other. The IO has an individual target to achieve and at the same time the centre too has set a target that they need to achieve.

This observation has been useful in a way that I not only observed their activities but also get to talk to them casually free from the stress of the interviews with one to one. I become part of the team and get to experience their feeling and stress in their daily job. One of the IO even showed his anger at me and insists that I analysed and confirmed the discrepancies in the taxpayer account. The stress and anger began to settle at the end of the day when they wind up the case and move back to office. However the stress and worries of the IO in charge of the case remains until they settled the case.

This report has been written based on my fieldwork diary and certain facts had been confirmed with some of the Investigation team members. However, the feeling, opinions and perceptions formed in this report are mine based on what I see and hear during the process. Although my original intention was to be a non-participant observer, I end up as a participant observer.

APPENDIX VIII

LIST OF VARIABLES AND ITS DEFINITIONS

- A1 The formal training given by National Tax Academy is sufficient to prepare me for the job.
- A2 The desk training (informal training) is important to prepare me for the job.
- A3 The formal training helps me in solving problems encountered in my daily job.
- A4 The training helps me to be innovative in my job.
- A11 An incentive allowance should be given to those who pass the advanced course.
- A12 Passing the advanced course should be one of the criteria for promotion.
- A13 I can discuss any job-related problems with my group leaders at all times.
- A14 The senior management is easily accessible when I need to discuss my work problems.
- A15 Communication between various levels of hierarchies in IRB is very formal.
- A21 my job is interesting.
- A22 it provides personal development.
- A23 It gives me the opportunity to learn.
- A24 working is a religious obligation.
- A25 it leads to my career development in MIRB.

- A26 it leads to my career development outside MIRB.
- B1 Keeping up with knowledge.
- B2 Sharing of knowledge.
- B3 Teamwork.
- B4 Team learning.
- B5 Learning for self-development.
- B6 Career development.
- B11 People are sharing knowledge with each other in this organisation.
- B12 I learn for future career prospect outside the organisation.
- B13 Working in a team gives me the opportunity to learn from others.
- B14 Team learning is more effective than individual learning.
- B15 Teamwork is important in field audit.
- B16 Teamwork is important in investigation work.
- B31 formal training.
- B32 on the job training.
- B33 experience
- B34 case law
- B35 taxpayers' file

- B36 peers
- B37 senior officers
- B38 interaction with customers
- B39 interaction with tax practitioners
- B21 competitors
- B22 partners
- B23 complementary roles
- C1 In performing my job I can act independently with minimum supervision.
- C2 I am given enough autonomy and discretion in performing my job.
- C3 I should be given more autonomy and discretion in performing my job.
- D1 I feel free to speak my mind on any aspect of the job even if it means disagreeing with my superior.
- D2 The management encourages participation of the staff in making decision.
- D3 My superior gets me involved when making decisions on work process.
- D4 When performing my work, I get orders from my superior.
- D5 I can make my own decision in solving my case.
- E1 Learning is a continuous process in this organisation .
- E2 My job requires learning.
- E3 The management at all levels encourages learning of the staff.

E4 The MIRB management facilitates my learning needs.

E5 I am responsible for my personal learning development.

APPENDIX IX: FREQUENCIES

A1

Statistics

A1

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		3.6198
Std. Deviation		1.0006
Variance		1.0013
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

A1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
disagree	41	21.4	21.4	22.9
undecided	5	2.6	2.6	25.5
agree	120	62.5	62.5	88.0
strongly agree	23	12.0	12.0	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

A2

Statistics

A2

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		4.5208
Std. Deviation		.5009
Variance		.2509
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

A2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid agree	92	47.9	47.9	47.9
strongly agree	100	52.1	52.1	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

A3

Statistics

A3

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		3.9167
Std. Deviation		.7543
Variance		.5689
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

A3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid disagree	17	8.9	8.9	8.9
undecided	12	6.3	6.3	15.1
agree	133	69.3	69.3	84.4
strongly agree	30	15.6	15.6	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

A4

Statistics

A4

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		3.6387
Std. Deviation		.9572
Variance		.9162
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

A4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid disagree	35	18.2	18.3	18.3
undecided	29	15.1	15.2	33.5
agree	97	50.5	50.8	84.3
strongly agree	30	15.6	15.7	100.0
Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing 99.00	1	.5		
Total	192	100.0		

A11

Statistics

A11

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		4.3665
Std. Deviation		1.0009
Variance		1.0018
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

A11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
	disagree	15	7.8	7.9	9.9
	undecided	4	2.1	2.1	12.0
	agree	52	27.1	27.2	39.3
	strongly agree	116	60.4	60.7	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

A12

Statistics

A12

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		4.3089
Std. Deviation		1.0632
Variance		1.1304
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

A12

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
	disagree	19	9.9	9.9	12.0
	undecided	6	3.1	3.1	15.2
	agree	47	24.5	24.6	39.8
	strongly agree	115	59.9	60.2	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

A13

Statistics

A13

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		3.8802
Std. Deviation		.9217
Variance		.8494
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

A13

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
disagree	20	10.4	10.4	12.0
undecided	16	8.3	8.3	20.3
agree	111	57.8	57.8	78.1
strongly agree	42	21.9	21.9	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

A14

Statistics

A14

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		3.4844
Std. Deviation		1.0334
Variance		1.0678
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

A14

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	9	4.7	4.7	4.7
disagree	30	15.6	15.6	20.3
undecided	33	17.2	17.2	37.5
agree	99	51.6	51.6	89.1
strongly agree	21	10.9	10.9	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

A15

Statistics

A15

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		3.7277
Std. Deviation		1.0048
Variance		1.0097
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

A15

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	2	1.0	1.0	1.0
	disagree	34	17.7	17.8	18.8
	undecided	15	7.8	7.9	26.7
	agree	103	53.6	53.9	80.6
	strongly agree	37	19.3	19.4	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

A21

Statistics

A21

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		3.9740
Std. Deviation		.7480
Variance		.5595
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

A21

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	disagree	12	6.3	6.3	6.3
	undecided	20	10.4	10.4	16.7
	agree	121	63.0	63.0	79.7
	strongly agree	39	20.3	20.3	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	100.0	

A22

Statistics

A22

N	Valid	189
	Missing	3
Mean		3.7672
Std. Deviation		.9160
Variance		.8391
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

A22

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	disagree	28	14.6	14.8	14.8
	undecided	22	11.5	11.6	26.5
	agree	105	54.7	55.6	82.0
	strongly agree	34	17.7	18.0	100.0
	Total	189	98.4	100.0	
Missing	99.00	3	1.6		
Total		192	100.0		

A23

Statistics

A23

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		4.2240
Std. Deviation		.5575
Variance		.3108
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	5.0000

A23

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	disagree	2	1.0	1.0	1.0
	undecided	7	3.6	3.6	4.7
	agree	129	67.2	67.2	71.9
	strongly agree	54	28.1	28.1	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	100.0	

A24

Statistics

A24

N	Valid	190
	Missing	2
Mean		4.0211
Std. Deviation		1.0438
Variance		1.0895
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	5.0000

A24

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	5	2.6	2.6	2.6
	disagree	19	9.9	10.0	12.6
	undecided	14	7.3	7.4	20.0
	agree	81	42.2	42.6	62.6
	strongly agree	71	37.0	37.4	100.0
	Total	190	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99.00	2	1.0		
Total		192	100.0		

A25

Statistics

A25

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		3.4764
Std. Deviation		1.0849
Variance		1.1771
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

A25

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	8	4.2	4.2	4.2
	disagree	34	17.7	17.8	22.0
	undecided	38	19.8	19.9	41.9
	agree	81	42.2	42.4	84.3
	strongly agree	30	15.6	15.7	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

A26

Statistics

A26

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		3.5288
Std. Deviation		.9558
Variance		.9136
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

A26

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
	disagree	27	14.1	14.1	16.2
	undecided	48	25.0	25.1	41.4
	agree	88	45.8	46.1	87.4
	strongly agree	24	12.5	12.6	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

B1

Statistics

B1

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		4.7969
Std. Deviation		.6186
Variance		.3826
Percentiles	25	5.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

B1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
	Of some important	3	1.6	1.6	3.1
	Fairly important	21	10.9	10.9	14.1
	Very important	165	85.9	85.9	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	100.0	

Statistics

B2

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		4.6354
Std. Deviation		.5900
Variance		.3481
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

B2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Fairly unimportant	1	.5	.5	.5
Of some important	8	4.2	4.2	4.7
Fairly important	51	26.6	26.6	31.3
Very important	132	68.8	68.8	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

B3

Statistics

B3

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		4.5885
Std. Deviation		.7325
Variance		.5366
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

B3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Not important	1	.5	.5	.5
Fairly unimportant	3	1.6	1.6	2.1
Of some important	13	6.8	6.8	8.9
Fairly important	40	20.8	20.8	29.7
Very important	135	70.3	70.3	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

B4

Statistics

B4

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		4.4241
Std. Deviation		.8292
Variance		.6876
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

B4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	1	.5	.5	.5
	Fairly unimportant	4	2.1	2.1	2.6
	Of some important	24	12.5	12.6	15.2
	Fairly important	46	24.0	24.1	39.3
	Very important	116	60.4	60.7	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

B5

Statistics

B5

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		4.3594
Std. Deviation		.8320
Variance		.6922
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

B5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	1	.5	.5	.5
	Fairly unimportant	4	2.1	2.1	2.6
	Of some important	26	13.5	13.5	16.1
	Fairly important	55	28.6	28.6	44.8
	Very important	106	55.2	55.2	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	100.0	

B6

Statistics

B6

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		4.0469
Std. Deviation		1.0145
Variance		1.0292
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	5.0000

B6

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
	Fairly unimportant	12	6.3	6.3	8.3
	Of some important	34	17.7	17.7	26.0
	Fairly important	63	32.8	32.8	58.9
	Very important	79	41.1	41.1	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	100.0	

B11

Statistics

B11

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		3.7539
Std. Deviation		.8749
Variance		.7654
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

B11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	2	1.0	1.0	1.0
	disagree	22	11.5	11.5	12.6
	undecided	24	12.5	12.6	25.1
	agree	116	60.4	60.7	85.9
	strongly agree	27	14.1	14.1	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

B12

Statistics

B12

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		2.9948
Std. Deviation		1.0131
Variance		1.0263
Percentiles	25	2.0000
	50	3.0000
	75	4.0000

B12

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	9	4.7	4.7	4.7
	disagree	59	30.7	30.9	35.6
	undecided	59	30.7	30.9	66.5
	agree	52	27.1	27.2	93.7
	strongly agree	12	6.3	6.3	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

B13

Statistics

B13

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		4.2723
Std. Deviation		.5018
Variance		.2518
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	5.0000

B13

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	undecided	5	2.6	2.6	2.6
	agree	129	67.2	67.5	70.2
	strongly agree	57	29.7	29.8	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

B14

Statistics

B14

N	Valid	190
	Missing	2
Mean		4.2947
Std. Deviation		.7182
Variance		.5158
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	5.0000

B14

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	disagree	6	3.1	3.2	3.2
	undecided	11	5.7	5.8	8.9
	agree	94	49.0	49.5	58.4
	strongly agree	79	41.1	41.6	100.0
	Total	190	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99.00	2	1.0		
Total		192	100.0		

B15

Statistics

B15

N	Valid	190
	Missing	2
Mean		4.6526
Std. Deviation		.5299
Variance		.2808
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

B15

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
	undecided	2	1.0	1.1	1.6
	agree	59	30.7	31.1	32.6
	strongly agree	128	66.7	67.4	100.0
	Total	190	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99.00	2	1.0		
Total		192	100.0		

B16

Statistics

B16

N	Valid	190
	Missing	2
Mean		4.6211
Std. Deviation		.5760
Variance		.3318
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

B16

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
	undecided	6	3.1	3.2	3.7
	agree	57	29.7	30.0	33.7
	strongly agree	126	65.6	66.3	100.0
	Total	190	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99.00	2	1.0		
Total		192	100.0		

B21

Statistics

B21

N	Valid	175
	Missing	17
Mean		1.5543
Std. Deviation		.4985
Variance		.2485
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	2.0000
	75	2.0000

B21

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	78	40.6	44.6	44.6
	No	97	50.5	55.4	100.0
	Total	175	91.1	100.0	
Missing	99.00	17	8.9		
Total		192	100.0		

B22

Statistics

B22

N	Valid	170
	Missing	22
Mean		1.5176
Std. Deviation		.5012
Variance		.2512
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	2.0000
	75	2.0000

B22

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	82	42.7	48.2	48.2
	No	88	45.8	51.8	100.0
	Total	170	88.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	22	11.5		
Total		192	100.0		

B23

Statistics

B23

N	Valid	174
	Missing	18
Mean		1.0747
Std. Deviation		.2637
Variance		6.953E-02
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	1.0000
	75	1.0000

B23

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	161	83.9	92.5	92.5
	No	13	6.8	7.5	100.0
	Total	174	90.6	100.0	
Missing	99.00	18	9.4		
Total		192	100.0		

B31

Statistics

B31

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		1.0469
Std. Deviation		.2119
Variance		4.491E-02
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	1.0000
	75	1.0000

B31

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yes	183	95.3	95.3	95.3
No	9	4.7	4.7	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

B32

Statistics

B32

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		1.0260
Std. Deviation		.1597
Variance		2.550E-02
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	1.0000
	75	1.0000

B32

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yes	187	97.4	97.4	97.4
No	5	2.6	2.6	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

B33

Statistics

B33

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		1.0366
Std. Deviation		.1884
Variance		3.549E-02
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	1.0000
	75	1.0000

B33

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	184	95.8	96.3	96.3
	No	7	3.6	3.7	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

B34

Statistics

B34

N	Valid	187
	Missing	5
Mean		1.0802
Std. Deviation		.2724
Variance		7.418E-02
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	1.0000
	75	1.0000

B34

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	172	89.6	92.0	92.0
	No	15	7.8	8.0	100.0
	Total	187	97.4	100.0	
Missing	99.00	5	2.6		
Total		192	100.0		

B35

Statistics

B35

N	Valid	190
	Missing	2
Mean		1.0421
Std. Deviation		.2014
Variance		4.055E-02
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	1.0000
	75	1.0000

B35

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	182	94.8	95.8	95.8
	No	8	4.2	4.2	100.0
	Total	190	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99.00	2	1.0		
Total		192	100.0		

B36

Statistics

B36

N	Valid	184
	Missing	8
Mean		1.0924
Std. Deviation		.2904
Variance		8.431E-02
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	1.0000
	75	1.0000

B36

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	167	87.0	90.8	90.8
	No	17	8.9	9.2	100.0
	Total	184	95.8	100.0	
Missing	99.00	8	4.2		
Total		192	100.0		

B37

Statistics

B37

N	Valid	184
	Missing	8
Mean		1.0543
Std. Deviation		.2273
Variance		5.167E-02
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	1.0000
	75	1.0000

B37

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	174	90.6	94.6	94.6
	No	10	5.2	5.4	100.0
	Total	184	95.8	100.0	
Missing	99.00	8	4.2		
Total		192	100.0		

B38

Statistics

B38

N	Valid	187
	Missing	5
Mean		1.2299
Std. Deviation		.4219
Variance		.1780
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	1.0000
	75	1.0000

B38

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	144	75.0	77.0	77.0
	No	43	22.4	23.0	100.0
	Total	187	97.4	100.0	
Missing	99.00	5	2.6		
Total		192	100.0		

B39

Statistics

B39

N	Valid	188
	Missing	4
Mean		1.2394
Std. Deviation		.4278
Variance		.1830
Percentiles	25	1.0000
	50	1.0000
	75	1.0000

B39

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	143	74.5	76.1	76.1
	No	45	23.4	23.9	100.0
	Total	188	97.9	100.0	
Missing	99.00	4	2.1		
Total		192	100.0		

C1

Statistics

C1

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		4.0995
Std. Deviation		.7295
Variance		.5322
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	5.0000

C1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	disagree	12	6.3	6.3	6.3
	undecided	6	3.1	3.1	9.4
	agree	124	64.6	64.9	74.3
	strongly agree	49	25.5	25.7	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

C2

Statistics

C2

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		3.6021
Std. Deviation		.9563
Variance		.9145
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

C2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
	disagree	33	17.2	17.3	18.8
	undecided	23	12.0	12.0	30.9
	agree	110	57.3	57.6	88.5
	strongly agree	22	11.5	11.5	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

C3

Statistics

C3

N	Valid	190
	Missing	2
Mean		3.7789
Std. Deviation		.9164
Variance		.8398
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

C3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	disagree	24	12.5	12.6	12.6
	undecided	33	17.2	17.4	30.0
	agree	94	49.0	49.5	79.5
	strongly agree	39	20.3	20.5	100.0
	Total	190	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99.00	2	1.0		
Total		192	100.0		

D1

Statistics

D1

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		2.6719
Std. Deviation		.9105
Variance		.8289
Percentiles	25	2.0000
	50	3.0000
	75	3.0000

D1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Never	21	10.9	10.9	10.9
Seldom	53	27.6	27.6	38.5
Sometimes	91	47.4	47.4	85.9
Often	22	11.5	11.5	97.4
Always	5	2.6	2.6	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

D2

Statistics

D2

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		2.7604
Std. Deviation		1.0658
Variance		1.1360
Percentiles	25	2.0000
	50	3.0000
	75	3.0000

D2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Never	21	10.9	10.9	10.9
Seldom	59	30.7	30.7	41.7
Sometimes	72	37.5	37.5	79.2
Often	25	13.0	13.0	92.2
Always	15	7.8	7.8	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

D3

Statistics

D3

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		2.9372
Std. Deviation		1.0343
Variance		1.0697
Percentiles	25	2.0000
	50	3.0000
	75	4.0000

D3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	16	8.3	8.4	8.4
	Seldom	45	23.4	23.6	31.9
	Sometimes	80	41.7	41.9	73.8
	Often	35	18.2	18.3	92.1
	Always	15	7.8	7.9	100.0
	Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing	99.00	1	.5		
Total		192	100.0		

D4

Statistics

D4

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		3.7240
Std. Deviation		.9048
Variance		.8187
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

D4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Seldom	14	7.3	7.3	7.3
	Sometimes	70	36.5	36.5	43.8
	Often	63	32.8	32.8	76.6
	Always	45	23.4	23.4	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	100.0	

D5

Statistics

D5

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		3.5885
Std. Deviation		.9109
Variance		.8298
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

D5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Never	6	3.1	3.1	3.1
Seldom	10	5.2	5.2	8.3
Sometimes	69	35.9	35.9	44.3
Often	79	41.1	41.1	85.4
Always	28	14.6	14.6	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

E1

Statistics

E1

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		4.6458
Std. Deviation		.5694
Variance		.3242
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

E1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
disagree	1	.5	.5	1.0
agree	61	31.8	31.8	32.8
strongly agree	129	67.2	67.2	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

E2

Statistics

E2

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		4.6302
Std. Deviation		.4840
Variance		.2343
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	5.0000
	75	5.0000

E2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid agree	71	37.0	37.0	37.0
strongly agree	121	63.0	63.0	100.0
Total	192	100.0	100.0	

E3

Statistics

E3

N	Valid	191
	Missing	1
Mean		3.9529
Std. Deviation		.9475
Variance		.8978
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	5.0000

E3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	5	2.6	2.6	2.6
disagree	9	4.7	4.7	7.3
undecided	33	17.2	17.3	24.6
agree	87	45.3	45.5	70.2
strongly agree	57	29.7	29.8	100.0
Total	191	99.5	100.0	
Missing 99.00	1	.5		
Total	192	100.0		

E4

Statistics

E4

N	Valid	190
	Missing	2
Mean		3.3526
Std. Deviation		.9850
Variance		.9702
Percentiles	25	3.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	4.0000

E4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	5	2.6	2.6	2.6
	disagree	39	20.3	20.5	23.2
	undecided	46	24.0	24.2	47.4
	agree	84	43.8	44.2	91.6
	strongly agree	16	8.3	8.4	100.0
	Total	190	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99.00	2	1.0		
Total		192	100.0		

E5

Statistics

E5

N	Valid	192
	Missing	0
Mean		4.3229
Std. Deviation		.6864
Variance		.4711
Percentiles	25	4.0000
	50	4.0000
	75	5.0000

E5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	disagree	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
	undecided	12	6.3	6.3	8.3
	agree	94	49.0	49.0	57.3
	strongly agree	82	42.7	42.7	100.0
Total		192	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX X: Oneway ANOVA (AGE1)

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A1	Between Groups	2.249	3	.750	.742	.528
	Within Groups	188.850	187	1.010		
	Total	191.099	190			
A2	Between Groups	1.307	3	.436	1.757	.157
	Within Groups	46.610	188	.248		
	Total	47.917	191			
A3	Between Groups	3.378	3	1.126	2.010	.114
	Within Groups	105.289	188	.560		
	Total	108.667	191			
A4	Between Groups	.428	3	.143	.153	.927
	Within Groups	173.646	187	.929		
	Total	174.073	190			
A11	Between Groups	15.950	3	5.317	5.701	.001
	Within Groups	174.395	187	.933		
	Total	190.346	190			
A12	Between Groups	1.454	3	.485	.425	.735
	Within Groups	213.321	187	1.141		
	Total	214.775	190			
A13	Between Groups	1.394	3	.465	.543	.653
	Within Groups	160.851	188	.856		
	Total	162.245	191			
A14	Between Groups	9.915	3	3.305	3.202	.024
	Within Groups	194.038	188	1.032		
	Total	203.953	191			
A15	Between Groups	3.157	3	1.052	1.043	.375
	Within Groups	188.686	187	1.009		
	Total	191.843	190			
A21	Between Groups	.921	3	.307	.545	.652
	Within Groups	105.949	188	.564		
	Total	106.870	191			
A22	Between Groups	4.354	3	1.451	1.750	.158
	Within Groups	153.402	185	.829		
	Total	157.757	188			
A23	Between Groups	.205	3	6.843E-02	.217	.884
	Within Groups	59.164	188	.315		
	Total	59.370	191			

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A24	Between Groups	28.503	3	9.501	9.961	.000
	Within Groups	177.413	186	.954		
	Total	205.916	189			
A25	Between Groups	8.680	3	2.893	2.517	.060
	Within Groups	214.964	187	1.150		
	Total	223.644	190			
A26	Between Groups	3.571	3	1.190	1.309	.273
	Within Groups	170.021	187	.909		
	Total	173.592	190			
B1	Between Groups	.622	3	.207	.538	.657
	Within Groups	72.456	188	.385		
	Total	73.078	191			
B2	Between Groups	1.784	3	.595	1.729	.163
	Within Groups	64.695	188	.344		
	Total	66.479	191			
B3	Between Groups	.943	3	.314	.582	.627
	Within Groups	101.552	188	.540		
	Total	102.495	191			
B4	Between Groups	5.300	3	1.767	2.635	.051
	Within Groups	125.350	187	.670		
	Total	130.649	190			
B5	Between Groups	5.066	3	1.689	2.497	.061
	Within Groups	127.137	188	.676		
	Total	132.203	191			
B6	Between Groups	.666	3	.222	.213	.887
	Within Groups	195.912	188	1.042		
	Total	196.578	191			
B11	Between Groups	2.659	3	.886	1.161	.326
	Within Groups	142.775	187	.764		
	Total	145.435	190			
B12	Between Groups	1.331	3	.444	.428	.733
	Within Groups	193.664	187	1.036		
	Total	194.995	190			
B13	Between Groups	.339	3	.113	.445	.721
	Within Groups	47.504	187	.254		
	Total	47.843	190			
B14	Between Groups	.341	3	.114	.218	.884
	Within Groups	97.153	186	.522		
	Total	97.495	189			

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
B15	Between Groups	.613	3	.204	.724	.539
	Within Groups	52.461	186	.282		
	Total	53.074	189			
B16	Between Groups	.840	3	.280	.841	.473
	Within Groups	61.876	186	.333		
	Total	62.716	189			
C1	Between Groups	1.033	3	.344	.643	.588
	Within Groups	100.077	187	.535		
	Total	101.110	190			
C2	Between Groups	.839	3	.280	.302	.824
	Within Groups	172.920	187	.925		
	Total	173.759	190			
C3	Between Groups	9.526	3	3.175	3.959	.009
	Within Groups	149.189	186	.802		
	Total	158.716	189			
D1	Between Groups	2.117	3	.706	.849	.469
	Within Groups	156.211	188	.831		
	Total	158.328	191			
D2	Between Groups	11.321	3	3.774	3.450	.018
	Within Groups	205.658	188	1.094		
	Total	216.979	191			
D3	Between Groups	3.486	3	1.162	1.088	.356
	Within Groups	199.760	187	1.068		
	Total	203.246	190			
D4	Between Groups	8.219	3	2.740	3.476	.017
	Within Groups	148.151	188	.788		
	Total	156.370	191			
D5	Between Groups	4.414	3	1.471	1.795	.150
	Within Groups	154.080	188	.820		
	Total	158.495	191			
E1	Between Groups	1.741	3	.580	1.813	.146
	Within Groups	60.175	188	.320		
	Total	61.917	191			
E2	Between Groups	1.290	3	.430	1.860	.138
	Within Groups	43.455	188	.231		
	Total	44.745	191			
E3	Between Groups	2.893	3	.964	1.075	.361
	Within Groups	167.683	187	.897		
	Total	170.576	190			

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
E4	Between Groups	4.577	3	1.526	1.587	.194
	Within Groups	178.797	186	.961		
	Total	183.374	189			
E5	Between Groups	2.813	3	.938	2.023	.112
	Within Groups	87.166	188	.464		
	Total	89.979	191			

Oneway:(AGE1)

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A11	Between Groups	15.950	3	5.317	5.701	.001
	Within Groups	174.395	187	.933		
	Total	190.346	190			
A14	Between Groups	9.915	3	3.305	3.202	.024
	Within Groups	194.038	188	1.032		
	Total	203.953	191			
A24	Between Groups	28.503	3	9.501	9.961	.000
	Within Groups	177.413	186	.954		
	Total	205.916	189			
C3	Between Groups	9.526	3	3.175	3.959	.009
	Within Groups	149.189	186	.802		
	Total	158.716	189			
D2	Between Groups	11.321	3	3.774	3.450	.018
	Within Groups	205.658	188	1.094		
	Total	216.979	191			
D4	Between Groups	8.219	3	2.740	3.476	.017
	Within Groups	148.151	188	.788		
	Total	156.370	191			

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Age groups	(J) Age groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
A11	26-34	35-42	5.714E-02	.215	.993
		43-49	.7500*	.246	.012
		50 and higher	.4095	.286	.479
	35-42	26-34	-5.7143E-02	.215	.993
		43-49	.6929*	.179	.001
		50 and higher	.3524	.231	.422
	43-49	26-34	-.7500*	.246	.012
		35-42	-.6929*	.179	.001
		50 and higher	-.3405	.260	.558
	50 and higher	26-34	-.4095	.286	.479
		35-42	-.3524	.231	.422
		43-49	.3405	.260	.558
A14	26-34	35-42	-.4034	.226	.280
		43-49	-.7850*	.259	.013
		50 and higher	-.5314	.301	.289
	35-42	26-34	.4034	.226	.280
		43-49	-.3816	.189	.179
		50 and higher	-.1280	.243	.952
	43-49	26-34	.7850*	.259	.013
		35-42	.3816	.189	.179
		50 and higher	.2536	.274	.791
	50 and higher	26-34	.5314	.301	.289
		35-42	.1280	.243	.952
		43-49	-.2536	.274	.791
A24	26-34	35-42	-.2248	.217	.729
		43-49	.7550*	.249	.013
		50 and higher	.2300	.293	.861
	35-42	26-34	.2248	.217	.729
		43-49	.9798*	.181	.000
		50 and higher	.4548	.238	.224
	43-49	26-34	-.7550*	.249	.013
		35-42	-.9798*	.181	.000
		50 and higher	-.5250	.267	.202
	50 and higher	26-34	-.2300	.293	.861
		35-42	-.4548	.238	.224
		43-49	.5250	.267	.202
C3	26-34	35-42	-5.4963E-02	.206	.993
		43-49	.2446	.234	.724
		50 and higher	.6315	.270	.090
	35-42	26-34	5.496E-02	.206	.993
		43-49	.2995	.166	.272
		50 and higher	.6864*	.214	.007
	43-49	26-34	-.2446	.234	.724
		35-42	-.2995	.166	.272
		50 and higher	.3869	.241	.377
	50 and higher	26-34	-.6315	.270	.090
		35-42	-.6864*	.214	.007
		43-49	-.3869	.241	.377

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Age groups	(J) Age groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
D2	26-34	35-42	.3940	.233	.327
		43-49	8.500E-02	.267	.989
		50 and higher	-.3257	.310	.719
	35-42	26-34	-.3940	.233	.327
		43-49	-.3090	.194	.383
		50 and higher	-.7197*	.250	.021
	43-49	26-34	-8.5000E-02	.267	.989
		35-42	.3090	.194	.383
		50 and higher	-.4107	.282	.464
	50 and higher	26-34	.3257	.310	.719
		35-42	.7197*	.250	.021
		43-49	.4107	.282	.464
D4	26-34	35-42	.4830	.197	.069
		43-49	.7250*	.226	.007
		50 and higher	.5333	.263	.177
	35-42	26-34	-.4830	.197	.069
		43-49	.2420	.165	.456
		50 and higher	5.031E-02	.212	.995
	43-49	26-34	-.7250*	.226	.007
		35-42	-.2420	.165	.456
		50 and higher	-.1917	.239	.854
	50 and higher	26-34	-.5333	.263	.177
		35-42	-5.0314E-02	.212	.995
		43-49	.1917	.239	.854

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Age groups	(J) Age groups	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
A11	26-34	35-42	-.4950	.6092
		43-49	.1175	1.3825
		50 and higher	-.3248	1.1439
	35-42	26-34	-.6092	.4950
		43-49	.2319	1.1538
		50 and higher	-.2407	.9454
	43-49	26-34	-1.3825	-.1175
		35-42	-1.1538	-.2319
		50 and higher	-1.0090	.3281
	50 and higher	26-34	-1.1439	.3248
		35-42	-.9454	.2407
		43-49	-.3281	1.0090
A14	26-34	35-42	-.9837	.1769
		43-49	-1.4504	-.1196
		50 and higher	-1.3040	.2411
	35-42	26-34	-.1769	.9837
		43-49	-.8659	.1027
		50 and higher	-.7514	.4954
	43-49	26-34	.1196	1.4504
		35-42	-.1027	.8659
		50 and higher	-.4498	.9569
	50 and higher	26-34	-.2411	1.3040
		35-42	-.4954	.7514
		43-49	-.9569	.4498
A24	26-34	35-42	-.7831	.3336
		43-49	.1153	1.3947
		50 and higher	-.5227	.9827
	35-42	26-34	-.3336	.7831
		43-49	.5136	1.4460
		50 and higher	-.1574	1.0669
	43-49	26-34	-1.3947	-.1153
		35-42	-1.4460	-.5136
		50 and higher	-1.2121	.1621
	50 and higher	26-34	-.9827	.5227
		35-42	-1.0669	.1574
		43-49	-.1621	1.2121
C3	26-34	35-42	-.5842	.4743
		43-49	-.3575	.8467
		50 and higher	-6.2971E-02	1.3259
	35-42	26-34	-.4743	.5842
		43-49	-.1274	.7265
		50 and higher	.1369	1.2360
	43-49	26-34	-.8467	.3575
		35-42	-.7265	.1274
		50 and higher	-.2331	1.0069
	50 and higher	26-34	-1.3259	6.297E-02
		35-42	-1.2360	-.1369
		43-49	-1.0069	.2331

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Age groups	(J) Age groups	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
D2	26-34	35-42	-.2035	.9914
		43-49	-.6000	.7700
		50 and higher	-1.1211	.4696
	35-42	26-34	-.9914	.2035
		43-49	-.8076	.1896
		50 and higher	-1.3615	-7.7871E-02
	43-49	26-34	-.7700	.6000
		35-42	-.1896	.8076
		50 and higher	-1.1348	.3134
	50 and higher	26-34	-.4696	1.1211
		35-42	7.787E-02	1.3615
		43-49	-.3134	1.1348
D4	26-34	35-42	-2.4037E-02	.9901
		43-49	.1436	1.3064
		50 and higher	-.1417	1.2084
	35-42	26-34	-.9901	2.404E-02
		43-49	-.1812	.6652
		50 and higher	-.4944	.5950
	43-49	26-34	-1.3064	-.1436
		35-42	-.6652	.1812
		50 and higher	-.8062	.4229
	50 and higher	26-34	-1.2084	.1417
		35-42	-.5950	.4944
		43-49	-.4229	.8062

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

A11

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Age groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
43-49	40	3.8500	
50 and higher	21	4.1905	4.1905
35-42	105		4.5429
26-34	25		4.6000
Sig.		.483	.315

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 32.749.

b. The group sizes are unequal, The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

A14Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Age groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
26-34	25	3.0400	
35-42	106	3.4434	3.4434
50 and higher	21	3.5714	3.5714
43-49	40		3.8250
Sig.		.147	.425

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 32.773.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

A24Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Age groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
43-49	40	3.3250	
50 and higher	20	3.8500	3.8500
26-34	25		4.0800
35-42	105		4.3048
Sig.		.136	.243

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 32.122.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

C3Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Age groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
50 and higher	21	3.2381	
43-49	40	3.6250	3.6250
26-34	23		3.8696
35-42	106		3.9245
Sig.		.311	.541

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 31.865.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

D2Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Age groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
35-42	106	2.5660	
43-49	40	2.8750	2.8750
26-34	25	2.9600	2.9600
50 and higher	21		3.2857
Sig.		.423	.385

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 32.773.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

D4Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Age groups	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
43-49	40	3.4750	
50 and higher	21	3.6667	3.6667
35-42	106	3.7170	3.7170
26-34	25		4.2000
Sig.		.687	.071

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 32.773.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Means: AGE1

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
A11 * Age groups	191	99.5%	1	.5%	192	100.0%
A14 * Age groups	192	100.0%	0	.0%	192	100.0%
A24 * Age groups	190	99.0%	2	1.0%	192	100.0%
C3 * Age groups	190	99.0%	2	1.0%	192	100.0%
D2 * Age groups	192	100.0%	0	.0%	192	100.0%
D4 * Age groups	192	100.0%	0	.0%	192	100.0%

Report

Age groups		A11	A14	A24	C3	D2	D4
26-34	Mean	4.6000	3.0400	4.0800	3.8696	2.9600	4.2000
	N	25	25	25	23	25	25
	Std. Deviation	.7071	1.0599	.8124	.9197	1.2741	.8165
35-42	Mean	4.5429	3.4434	4.3048	3.9245	2.5660	3.7170
	N	105	106	105	106	106	106
	Std. Deviation	.8990	1.0518	.7981	.8805	1.0237	.9129
43-49	Mean	3.8500	3.8250	3.3250	3.6250	2.8750	3.4750
	N	40	40	40	40	40	40
	Std. Deviation	1.2100	.9026	1.2888	.7742	.9920	.8469
50 and higher	Mean	4.1905	3.5714	3.8500	3.2381	3.2857	3.6667
	N	21	21	20	21	21	21
	Std. Deviation	1.0305	.9783	1.2680	1.1360	.9562	.9129
Total	Mean	4.3665	3.4844	4.0211	3.7789	2.7604	3.7240
	N	191	192	190	190	192	192
	Std. Deviation	1.0009	1.0334	1.0438	.9164	1.0658	.9048

APPENDIX XI: Oneway ANOVA (POSITION)

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A1	Between Groups	1.714	3	.571	.564	.639
	Within Groups	189.386	187	1.013		
	Total	191.099	190			
A2	Between Groups	2.042	3	.681	2.789	.042
	Within Groups	45.875	188	.244		
	Total	47.917	191			
A3	Between Groups	.954	3	.318	.555	.646
	Within Groups	107.713	188	.573		
	Total	108.667	191			
A4	Between Groups	6.099	3	2.033	2.263	.083
	Within Groups	167.974	187	.898		
	Total	174.073	190			
A11	Between Groups	1.735	3	.578	.573	.633
	Within Groups	188.610	187	1.009		
	Total	190.346	190			
A12	Between Groups	4.512	3	1.504	1.337	.264
	Within Groups	210.263	187	1.124		
	Total	214.775	190			
A13	Between Groups	7.578	3	2.526	3.070	.029
	Within Groups	154.667	188	.823		
	Total	162.245	191			
A14	Between Groups	12.770	3	4.257	4.186	.007
	Within Groups	191.183	188	1.017		
	Total	203.953	191			
A15	Between Groups	3.733	3	1.244	1.237	.298
	Within Groups	188.110	187	1.006		
	Total	191.843	190			
A21	Between Groups	.695	3	.232	.410	.746
	Within Groups	106.175	188	.565		
	Total	106.870	191			
A22	Between Groups	5.629	3	1.876	2.282	.081
	Within Groups	152.128	185	.822		
	Total	157.757	188			
A23	Between Groups	.726	3	.242	.776	.509
	Within Groups	58.644	188	.312		
	Total	59.370	191			
A24	Between Groups	.483	3	.161	.146	.932
	Within Groups	205.433	186	1.104		
	Total	205.916	189			
A25	Between Groups	2.721	3	.907	.768	.513
	Within Groups	220.923	187	1.181		
	Total	223.644	190			
A26	Between Groups	8.632E-02	3	2.877E-02	.031	.993
	Within Groups	173.505	187	.928		
	Total	173.592	190			
B1	Between Groups	.137	3	4.573E-02	.118	.950
	Within Groups	72.941	188	.388		
	Total	73.078	191			

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
B2	Between Groups	2.177	3	.726	2.122	.099
	Within Groups	64.302	188	.342		
	Total	66.479	191			
B3	Between Groups	1.386	3	.462	.859	.464
	Within Groups	101.109	188	.538		
	Total	102.495	191			
B4	Between Groups	1.393	3	.464	.672	.570
	Within Groups	129.256	187	.691		
	Total	130.649	190			
B5	Between Groups	2.786	3	.929	1.349	.260
	Within Groups	129.417	188	.688		
	Total	132.203	191			
B6	Between Groups	4.278	3	1.426	1.394	.246
	Within Groups	192.300	188	1.023		
	Total	196.578	191			
B11	Between Groups	2.332	3	.777	1.016	.387
	Within Groups	143.103	187	.765		
	Total	145.435	190			
B12	Between Groups	3.162	3	1.054	1.027	.382
	Within Groups	191.833	187	1.026		
	Total	194.995	190			
B13	Between Groups	.370	3	.123	.486	.692
	Within Groups	47.473	187	.254		
	Total	47.843	190			
B14	Between Groups	1.208	3	.403	.778	.508
	Within Groups	96.287	186	.518		
	Total	97.495	189			
B15	Between Groups	.572	3	.191	.675	.568
	Within Groups	52.502	186	.282		
	Total	53.074	189			
B16	Between Groups	.744	3	.248	.744	.527
	Within Groups	61.972	186	.333		
	Total	62.716	189			
C1	Between Groups	1.353	3	.451	.845	.471
	Within Groups	99.757	187	.533		
	Total	101.110	190			
C2	Between Groups	4.534	3	1.511	1.670	.175
	Within Groups	169.225	187	.905		
	Total	173.759	190			
C3	Between Groups	3.216	3	1.072	1.282	.282
	Within Groups	155.500	186	.836		
	Total	158.716	189			
D1	Between Groups	1.786	3	.595	.715	.544
	Within Groups	156.542	188	.833		
	Total	158.328	191			
D2	Between Groups	1.682	3	.561	.489	.690
	Within Groups	215.297	188	1.145		
	Total	216.979	191			
D3	Between Groups	5.294	3	1.765	1.667	.176
	Within Groups	197.952	187	1.059		
	Total	203.246	190			

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
D4	Between Groups	5.326	3	1.775	2.210	.088
	Within Groups	151.044	188	.803		
	Total	156.370	191			
D5	Between Groups	9.286	3	3.095	3.900	.010
	Within Groups	149.208	188	.794		
	Total	158.495	191			
E1	Between Groups	.573	3	.191	.586	.625
	Within Groups	61.343	188	.326		
	Total	61.917	191			
E2	Between Groups	.571	3	.190	.810	.490
	Within Groups	44.174	188	.235		
	Total	44.745	191			
E3	Between Groups	1.467	3	.489	.541	.655
	Within Groups	169.109	187	.904		
	Total	170.576	190			
E4	Between Groups	6.047	3	2.016	2.114	.100
	Within Groups	177.327	186	.953		
	Total	183.374	189			
E5	Between Groups	.218	3	7.270E-02	.152	.928
	Within Groups	89.761	188	.477		
	Total	89.979	191			

Oneway: (POSITION)

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A2	Between Groups	2.042	3	.681	2.789	.042
	Within Groups	45.875	188	.244		
	Total	47.917	191			
A13	Between Groups	7.578	3	2.526	3.070	.029
	Within Groups	154.667	188	.823		
	Total	162.245	191			
A14	Between Groups	12.770	3	4.257	4.186	.007
	Within Groups	191.183	188	1.017		
	Total	203.953	191			
D5	Between Groups	9.286	3	3.095	3.900	.010
	Within Groups	149.208	188	.794		
	Total	158.495	191			

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Position	(J) Position	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error
A2	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	-.2500	.108
		Deputy Group Leader	.1250	.179
		Special Post	.5000	.352
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.2500	.108
		Deputy Group Leader	.3750	.202
		Special Post	.7500	.364
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	-.1250	.179
		Group Leader	-.3750	.202
		Special Post	.3750	.391
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	-.5000	.352
		Group Leader	-.7500	.364
		Deputy Group Leader	-.3750	.391
A13	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	-.3412	.199
		Deputy Group Leader	.3671	.329
		Special Post	1.3671	.645
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.3412	.199
		Deputy Group Leader	.7083	.370
		Special Post	1.7083	.668
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	-.3671	.329
		Group Leader	-.7083	.370
		Special Post	1.0000	.717
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	-1.3671	.645
		Group Leader	-1.7083	.668
		Deputy Group Leader	-1.0000	.717
A14	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	-.3460	.221
		Deputy Group Leader	1.1123*	.365
		Special Post	-1.2658E-02	.718
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.3460	.221
		Deputy Group Leader	1.4583*	.412
		Special Post	.3333	.742
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	-1.1123*	.365
		Group Leader	-1.4583*	.412
		Special Post	-1.1250	.797
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	1.266E-02	.718
		Group Leader	-.3333	.742
		Deputy Group Leader	1.1250	.797
D5	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	-.6667*	.195
		Deputy Group Leader	-.1250	.323
		Special Post	.0000	.634
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.6667*	.195
		Deputy Group Leader	.5417	.364
		Special Post	.6667	.656
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.1250	.323
		Group Leader	-.5417	.364
		Special Post	.1250	.704
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	.0000	.634
		Group Leader	-.6667	.656
		Deputy Group Leader	-.1250	.704

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Position	(J) Position	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
				Lower Bound
A2	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	.096	-.5280
		Deputy Group Leader	.898	-.3349
		Special Post	.485	-.4030
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.096	-2.8023E-02
		Deputy Group Leader	.246	-.1431
		Special Post	.165	-.1840
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.898	-.5849
		Group Leader	.246	-.8931
		Special Post	.772	-.6283
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	.485	-1.4030
		Group Leader	.165	-1.6840
		Deputy Group Leader	.772	-1.3783
A13	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	.315	-.8517
		Deputy Group Leader	.679	-.4774
		Special Post	.147	-.2910
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.315	-.1693
		Deputy Group Leader	.223	-.2430
		Special Post	.051	-6.6347E-03
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.679	-1.2115
		Group Leader	.223	-1.6596
		Special Post	.503	-.8422
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	.147	-3.0252
		Group Leader	.051	-3.4233
		Deputy Group Leader	.503	-2.8422
A14	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	.398	-.9136
		Deputy Group Leader	.013	.1735
		Special Post	1.000	-1.8561
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.398	-.2216
		Deputy Group Leader	.002	.4007
		Special Post	.970	-1.5734
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.013	-2.0512
		Group Leader	.002	-2.5160
		Special Post	.492	-3.1731
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	1.000	-1.8308
		Group Leader	.970	-2.2400
		Deputy Group Leader	.492	-.9231
D5	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	.004	-1.1681
		Deputy Group Leader	.980	-.9544
		Special Post	1.000	-1.6286
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.004	.1653
		Deputy Group Leader	.444	-.3927
		Special Post	.740	-1.0178
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.980	-.7044
		Group Leader	.444	-1.4760
		Special Post	.998	-1.6844
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	1.000	-1.6286
		Group Leader	.740	-2.3511
		Deputy Group Leader	.998	-1.9344

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Position	(J) Position	95% Confidence Interval
			Upper Bound
A2	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	2.802E-02
		Deputy Group Leader	.5849
		Special Post	1.4030
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.5280
		Deputy Group Leader	.8931
		Special Post	1.6840
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.3349
		Group Leader	.1431
		Special Post	1.3783
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	.4030
		Group Leader	.1840
		Deputy Group Leader	.6283
A13	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	.1693
		Deputy Group Leader	1.2115
		Special Post	3.0252
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.8517
		Deputy Group Leader	1.6596
		Special Post	3.4233
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.4774
		Group Leader	.2430
		Special Post	2.8422
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	.2910
		Group Leader	6.635E-03
		Deputy Group Leader	.8422
A14	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	.2216
		Deputy Group Leader	2.0512
		Special Post	1.8308
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.9136
		Deputy Group Leader	2.5160
		Special Post	2.2400
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	-.1735
		Group Leader	-.4007
		Special Post	.9231
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	1.8561
		Group Leader	1.5734
		Deputy Group Leader	3.1731
D5	Ordinary Assessor	Group Leader	-.1653
		Deputy Group Leader	.7044
		Special Post	1.6286
	Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	1.1681
		Deputy Group Leader	1.4760
		Special Post	2.3511
	Deputy Group Leader	Ordinary Assessor	.9544
		Group Leader	.3927
		Special Post	1.9344
	Special Post	Ordinary Assessor	1.6286
		Group Leader	1.0178
		Deputy Group Leader	1.6844

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

A2

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Position	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Special Post	2	4.0000	
Deputy Group Leader	8	4.3750	4.3750
Ordinary Assessor	158	4.5000	4.5000
Group Leader	24		4.7500
Sig.		.300	.557

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 5.944.
- The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

A13

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Position	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Special Post	2	2.5000	
Deputy Group Leader	8	3.5000	3.5000
Ordinary Assessor	158		3.8671
Group Leader	24		4.2083
Sig.		.228	.533

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 5.944.
- The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

A14

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Position	N	Subset for alpha = .05
		1
Deputy Group Leader	8	2.3750
Ordinary Assessor	158	3.4873
Special Post	2	3.5000
Group Leader	24	3.8333
Sig.		.061

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 5.944.
- The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

D5

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Position	N	Subset for alpha = .05
		1
Ordinary Assessor	158	3.5000
Special Post	2	3.5000
Deputy Group Leader	8	3.6250
Group Leader	24	4.1667
Sig.		.569

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 5.944.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Means: (POSITION)

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
A2 * Position	192	100.0%	0	.0%	192	100.0%
A13 * Position	192	100.0%	0	.0%	192	100.0%
A14 * Position	192	100.0%	0	.0%	192	100.0%
D5 * Position	192	100.0%	0	.0%	192	100.0%

Report

Position		A2	A13	A14	D5
Ordinary Assessor	Mean	4.5000	3.8671	3.4873	3.5000
	N	158	158	158	158
	Std. Deviation	.5016	.8750	1.0390	.9290
Group Leader	Mean	4.7500	4.2083	3.8333	4.1667
	N	24	24	24	24
	Std. Deviation	.4423	.9315	.8165	.5647
Deputy Group Leader	Mean	4.3750	3.5000	2.3750	3.6250
	N	8	8	8	8
	Std. Deviation	.5175	1.4142	.9161	.9161
Special Post	Mean	4.0000	2.5000	3.5000	3.5000
	N	2	2	2	2
	Std. Deviation	.0000	.7071	.7071	.7071
Total	Mean	4.5208	3.8802	3.4844	3.5885
	N	192	192	192	192
	Std. Deviation	.5009	.9217	1.0334	.9109

APPENDIX XII: Oneway ANOVA (PSCHEME)

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A1	Between Groups	1.260	3	.420	.417	.741
	Within Groups	182.254	181	1.007		
	Total	183.514	184			
A2	Between Groups	.102	3	3.401E-02	.134	.940
	Within Groups	46.264	182	.254		
	Total	46.366	185			
A3	Between Groups	3.057	3	1.019	1.776	.153
	Within Groups	104.390	182	.574		
	Total	107.446	185			
A4	Between Groups	1.171	3	.390	.416	.742
	Within Groups	169.835	181	.938		
	Total	171.005	184			
A11	Between Groups	11.299	3	3.766	3.842	.011
	Within Groups	177.436	181	.980		
	Total	188.735	184			
A12	Between Groups	.732	3	.244	.213	.887
	Within Groups	207.084	181	1.144		
	Total	207.816	184			
A13	Between Groups	1.553	3	.518	.604	.613
	Within Groups	155.845	182	.856		
	Total	157.398	185			
A14	Between Groups	1.484	3	.495	.457	.712
	Within Groups	196.881	182	1.082		
	Total	198.366	185			
A15	Between Groups	.934	3	.311	.302	.824
	Within Groups	187.389	182	1.030		
	Total	188.323	185			
A21	Between Groups	1.881	3	.627	1.153	.329
	Within Groups	98.984	182	.544		
	Total	100.866	185			
A22	Between Groups	2.476	3	.825	.992	.398
	Within Groups	148.945	179	.832		
	Total	151.421	182			
A23	Between Groups	1.321	3	.440	1.415	.240
	Within Groups	56.641	182	.311		
	Total	57.962	185			
A24	Between Groups	18.747	3	6.249	6.139	.001
	Within Groups	183.231	180	1.018		
	Total	201.978	183			
A25	Between Groups	6.450	3	2.150	1.855	.139
	Within Groups	209.766	181	1.159		
	Total	216.216	184			
A26	Between Groups	2.973	3	.991	1.073	.362
	Within Groups	167.167	181	.924		
	Total	170.141	184			
B1	Between Groups	.784	3	.261	.666	.574
	Within Groups	71.452	182	.393		
	Total	72.237	185			

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
B2	Between Groups	4.513	3	1.504	4.515	.004
	Within Groups	60.627	182	.333		
	Total	65.140	185			
B3	Between Groups	4.693	3	1.564	2.958	.034
	Within Groups	96.253	182	.529		
	Total	100.946	185			
B4	Between Groups	4.242	3	1.414	2.050	.109
	Within Groups	124.871	181	.690		
	Total	129.114	184			
B5	Between Groups	1.179	3	.393	.560	.642
	Within Groups	127.686	182	.702		
	Total	128.866	185			
B6	Between Groups	2.943	3	.981	.974	.406
	Within Groups	183.406	182	1.008		
	Total	186.349	185			
B11	Between Groups	2.816	3	.939	1.233	.299
	Within Groups	137.746	181	.761		
	Total	140.562	184			
B12	Between Groups	.768	3	.256	.248	.863
	Within Groups	187.232	181	1.034		
	Total	188.000	184			
B13	Between Groups	.860	3	.287	1.137	.336
	Within Groups	45.627	181	.252		
	Total	46.486	184			
B14	Between Groups	2.453	3	.818	1.571	.198
	Within Groups	93.699	180	.521		
	Total	96.152	183			
B15	Between Groups	.656	3	.219	.770	.512
	Within Groups	51.083	180	.284		
	Total	51.739	183			
B16	Between Groups	3.720	3	1.240	3.871	.010
	Within Groups	57.650	180	.320		
	Total	61.370	183			
C1	Between Groups	3.009	3	1.003	1.906	.130
	Within Groups	95.240	181	.526		
	Total	98.249	184			
C2	Between Groups	4.104	3	1.368	1.485	.220
	Within Groups	166.675	181	.921		
	Total	170.778	184			
C3	Between Groups	4.991	3	1.664	2.071	.106
	Within Groups	144.569	180	.803		
	Total	149.560	183			
D1	Between Groups	4.559	3	1.520	1.847	.140
	Within Groups	149.726	182	.823		
	Total	154.285	185			
D2	Between Groups	5.730	3	1.910	1.664	.176
	Within Groups	208.894	182	1.148		
	Total	214.624	185			
D3	Between Groups	12.387	3	4.129	4.049	.008
	Within Groups	184.554	181	1.020		
	Total	196.941	184			

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
D4	Between Groups	4.854	3	1.618	2.056	.108
	Within Groups	143.238	182	.787		
	Total	148.091	185			
D5	Between Groups	1.753	3	.584	.693	.558
	Within Groups	153.537	182	.844		
	Total	155.290	185			
E1	Between Groups	1.620	3	.540	1.675	.174
	Within Groups	58.665	182	.322		
	Total	60.285	185			
E2	Between Groups	.619	3	.206	.878	.453
	Within Groups	42.784	182	.235		
	Total	43.403	185			
E3	Between Groups	.588	3	.196	.213	.888
	Within Groups	166.871	181	.922		
	Total	167.459	184			
E4	Between Groups	3.470	3	1.157	1.207	.309
	Within Groups	172.568	180	.959		
	Total	176.038	183			
E5	Between Groups	1.175	3	.392	.822	.483
	Within Groups	86.739	182	.477		
	Total	87.914	185			

Oneway: (PSCHEME)

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A11	Between Groups	11.299	3	3.766	3.842	.011
	Within Groups	177.436	181	.980		
	Total	188.735	184			
A24	Between Groups	18.747	3	6.249	6.139	.001
	Within Groups	183.231	180	1.018		
	Total	201.978	183			
B2	Between Groups	4.513	3	1.504	4.515	.004
	Within Groups	60.627	182	.333		
	Total	65.140	185			
B3	Between Groups	4.693	3	1.564	2.958	.034
	Within Groups	96.253	182	.529		
	Total	100.946	185			
B16	Between Groups	3.720	3	1.240	3.871	.010
	Within Groups	57.650	180	.320		
	Total	61.370	183			
D3	Between Groups	12.387	3	4.129	4.049	.008
	Within Groups	184.554	181	1.020		
	Total	196.941	184			

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Previous Scheme	(J) Previous Scheme	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error
A11	Assessor	Weeded Post	.3221	.173
		Rank and File	.9325	.384
		Promotion	.7897	.384
	Weeded Post	Assessor	-.3221	.173
		Rank and File	.6104	.403
		Promotion	.4675	.403
	Rank and File	Assessor	-.9325	.384
		Weeded Post	-.6104	.403
		Promotion	-.1429	.529
	Promotion	Assessor	-.7897	.384
		Weeded Post	-.4675	.403
		Rank and File	.1429	.529
A24	Assessor	Weeded Post	.6815*	.177
		Rank and File	.1587	.392
		Promotion	-.5556	.392
	Weeded Post	Assessor	-.6815*	.177
		Rank and File	-.5227	.411
		Promotion	-1.2370*	.411
	Rank and File	Assessor	-.1587	.392
		Weeded Post	.5227	.411
		Promotion	-.7143	.539
	Promotion	Assessor	.5556	.392
		Weeded Post	1.2370*	.411
		Rank and File	.7143	.539
B2	Assessor	Weeded Post	5.494E-02	.100
		Rank and File	.8200*	.224
		Promotion	-3.7120E-02	.224
	Weeded Post	Assessor	-5.4943E-02	.100
		Rank and File	.7651*	.235
		Promotion	-9.2063E-02	.235
	Rank and File	Assessor	-.8200*	.224
		Weeded Post	-.7651*	.235
		Promotion	-.8571*	.309
	Promotion	Assessor	3.712E-02	.224
		Weeded Post	9.206E-02	.235
		Rank and File	.8571*	.309
B3	Assessor	Weeded Post	.1045	.126
		Rank and File	.7807*	.282
		Promotion	-.2193	.282
	Weeded Post	Assessor	-.1045	.126
		Rank and File	.6762	.295
		Promotion	-.3238	.295
	Rank and File	Assessor	-.7807*	.282
		Weeded Post	-.6762	.295
		Promotion	-1.0000*	.389
	Promotion	Assessor	.2193	.282
		Weeded Post	.3238	.295
		Rank and File	1.0000*	.389
B16	Assessor	Weeded Post	9.778E-03	.098
		Rank and File	.6320*	.220
		Promotion	-.3680	.220
	Weeded Post	Assessor	-9.7778E-03	.098
		Rank and File	.6222*	.230
		Promotion	-.3778	.230

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Previous Scheme	(J) Previous Scheme	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error
B16	Rank and File	Assessor	-.6320*	.220
		Weeded Post	-.6222*	.230
		Promotion	-1.0000*	.303
	Promotion	Assessor	.3680	.220
		Weeded Post	.3778	.230
		Rank and File	1.0000*	.303
D3	Assessor	Weeded Post	.1794	.175
		Rank and File	-.2302	.392
		Promotion	-1.2302*	.392
	Weeded Post	Assessor	-.1794	.175
		Rank and File	-.4095	.410
		Promotion	-1.4095*	.410
	Rank and File	Assessor	.2302	.392
		Weeded Post	.4095	.410
		Promotion	-1.0000	.540
	Promotion	Assessor	1.2302*	.392
		Weeded Post	1.4095*	.410
		Rank and File	1.0000	.540

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Previous Scheme	(J) Previous Scheme	Sig.	95% Confidence
				Lower Bound
A11	Assessor	Weeded Post	.246	-.1228
		Rank and File	.072	-5.5028E-02
		Promotion	.168	-.1979
	Weeded Post	Assessor	.246	-.7671
		Rank and File	.428	-.4247
		Promotion	.652	-.5675
	Rank and File	Assessor	.072	-1.9200
		Weeded Post	.428	-1.6454
		Promotion	.993	-1.5025
	Promotion	Assessor	.168	-1.7772
		Weeded Post	.652	-1.5026
		Rank and File	.993	-1.2168
A24	Assessor	Weeded Post	.001	.2276
		Rank and File	.978	-.8478
		Promotion	.488	-1.5621
	Weeded Post	Assessor	.001	-1.1353
		Rank and File	.580	-1.5775
		Promotion	.014	-2.2917
	Rank and File	Assessor	.978	-1.1653
		Weeded Post	.580	-.5320
		Promotion	.547	-2.0998
	Promotion	Assessor	.488	-.4510
		Weeded Post	.014	.1823
		Rank and File	.547	-.6712
B2	Assessor	Weeded Post	.947	-.2023
		Rank and File	.001	.2444
		Promotion	.998	-.6128
	Weeded Post	Assessor	.947	-.3122
		Rank and File	.006	.1626
		Promotion	.979	-.6945
	Rank and File	Assessor	.001	-1.3957
		Weeded Post	.006	-1.3675
		Promotion	.028	-1.6497
	Promotion	Assessor	.998	-.5385
		Weeded Post	.979	-.5104
		Rank and File	.028	6.458E-02
B3	Assessor	Weeded Post	.841	-.2197
		Rank and File	.029	5.531E-02
		Promotion	.865	-.9447
	Weeded Post	Assessor	.841	-.4286
		Rank and File	.101	-8.2889E-02
		Promotion	.692	-1.0829
	Rank and File	Assessor	.029	-1.5060
		Weeded Post	.101	-1.4353
		Promotion	.050	-1.9986
	Promotion	Assessor	.865	-.5060
		Weeded Post	.692	-.4353
		Rank and File	.050	1.365E-03
B16	Assessor	Weeded Post	1.000	-.2430
		Rank and File	.021	6.730E-02
		Promotion	.337	-.9327
	Weeded Post	Assessor	1.000	-.2625
		Rank and File	.034	3.151E-02
		Promotion	.354	-.9685

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Previous Scheme	(J) Previous Scheme	Sig.	95% Confidence
				Lower Bound
B16	Rank and File	Assessor	.021	-1.1967
		Weeded Post	.034	-1.2129
		Promotion	.005	-1.7771
	Promotion	Assessor	.337	-.1967
		Weeded Post	.354	-.2129
		Rank and File	.005	.2229
D3	Assessor	Weeded Post	.736	-.2711
		Rank and File	.936	-1.2375
		Promotion	.009	-2.2375
	Weeded Post	Assessor	.736	-.6299
		Rank and File	.750	-1.4635
		Promotion	.003	-2.4635
	Rank and File	Assessor	.936	-.7772
		Weeded Post	.750	-.6445
		Promotion	.249	-2.3866
	Promotion	Assessor	.009	.2228
		Weeded Post	.003	.3555
		Rank and File	.249	-.3866

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Previous Scheme	(J) Previous Scheme	95% Confidence
			Upper Bound
A11	Assessor	Weeded Post	.7671
		Rank and File	1.9200
		Promotion	1.7772
	Weeded Post	Assessor	.1228
		Rank and File	1.6454
		Promotion	1.5026
	Rank and File	Assessor	5.503E-02
		Weeded Post	.4247
		Promotion	1.2168
	Promotion	Assessor	.1979
		Weeded Post	.5675
		Rank and File	1.5025
A24	Assessor	Weeded Post	1.1353
		Rank and File	1.1653
		Promotion	.4510
	Weeded Post	Assessor	-.2276
		Rank and File	.5320
		Promotion	-.1823
	Rank and File	Assessor	.8478
		Weeded Post	1.5775
		Promotion	.6712
	Promotion	Assessor	1.5621
		Weeded Post	2.2917
		Rank and File	2.0998
B2	Assessor	Weeded Post	.3122
		Rank and File	1.3957
		Promotion	.5385
	Weeded Post	Assessor	.2023
		Rank and File	1.3675
		Promotion	.5104
	Rank and File	Assessor	-.2444
		Weeded Post	-.1626
		Promotion	-6.4579E-02
	Promotion	Assessor	.6128
		Weeded Post	.6945
		Rank and File	1.6497
B3	Assessor	Weeded Post	.4286
		Rank and File	1.5060
		Promotion	.5060
	Weeded Post	Assessor	.2197
		Rank and File	1.4353
		Promotion	.4353
	Rank and File	Assessor	-5.5311E-02
		Weeded Post	8.289E-02
		Promotion	-1.3647E-03
	Promotion	Assessor	.9447
		Weeded Post	1.0829
		Rank and File	1.9986
B16	Assessor	Weeded Post	.2625
		Rank and File	1.1967
		Promotion	.1967
	Weeded Post	Assessor	.2430
		Rank and File	1.2129
		Promotion	.2129

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Previous Scheme	(J) Previous Scheme	95% Confidence
			Upper Bound
B16	Rank and File	Assessor	-6.7303E-02
		Weeded Post	-3.1506E-02
		Promotion	-.2229
	Promotion	Assessor	.9327
		Weeded Post	.9685
		Rank and File	1.7771
D3	Assessor	Weeded Post	.6299
		Rank and File	.7772
		Promotion	-.2228
	Weeded Post	Assessor	.2711
		Rank and File	.6445
		Promotion	-.3555
	Rank and File	Assessor	1.2375
		Weeded Post	1.4635
		Promotion	.3866
	Promotion	Assessor	2.2375
		Weeded Post	2.4635
		Rank and File	2.3866

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

A11

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Previous Scheme	N	Subset for alpha = .05
		1
Rank and File	7	3.5714
Promotion	7	3.7143
Weeded Post	44	4.1818
Assessor	127	4.5039
Sig.		.083

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.646.
- The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

A24

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Previous Scheme	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Weeded Post	44	3.4773	
Rank and File	7	4.0000	4.0000
Assessor	126	4.1587	4.1587
Promotion	7		4.7143
Sig.		.325	.283

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.643.
- The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

B2Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Previous Scheme	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Rank and File	7	3.8571	
Weeded Post	45		4.6222
Assessor	127		4.6772
Promotion	7		4.7143
Sig.		1.000	.978

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.666.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

B3Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Previous Scheme	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Rank and File	7	3.8571	
Weeded Post	45	4.5333	4.5333
Assessor	127		4.6378
Promotion	7		4.8571
Sig.		.089	.677

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.666.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

B16Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Previous Scheme	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Rank and File	7	4.0000	
Weeded Post	45		4.6222
Assessor	125		4.6320
Promotion	7		5.0000
Sig.		1.000	.335

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.661.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

D3

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Previous Scheme	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
Weeded Post	45	2.7333	
Assessor	126	2.9127	
Rank and File	7	3.1429	3.1429
Promotion	7		4.1429
Sig.		.737	.061

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.663.
- b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Means (PScheme)

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
A11 * Previous Scheme	185	96.4%	7	3.6%	192	100.0%
A24 * Previous Scheme	184	95.8%	8	4.2%	192	100.0%
B2 * Previous Scheme	186	96.9%	6	3.1%	192	100.0%
B3 * Previous Scheme	186	96.9%	6	3.1%	192	100.0%
B16 * Previous Scheme	184	95.8%	8	4.2%	192	100.0%
D3 * Previous Scheme	185	96.4%	7	3.6%	192	100.0%

Report

Previous Scheme		A11	A24	B2	B3
Assessor	Mean	4.5039	4.1587	4.6772	4.6378
	N	127	126	127	127
	Std. Deviation	.9333	.8710	.5618	.7310
Weeded Post	Mean	4.1818	3.4773	4.6222	4.5333
	N	44	44	45	45
	Std. Deviation	.9710	1.3723	.6138	.7568
Rank and File	Mean	3.5714	4.0000	3.8571	3.8571
	N	7	7	7	7
	Std. Deviation	1.5119	1.0000	.6901	.6901
Promotion	Mean	3.7143	4.7143	4.7143	4.8571
	N	7	7	7	7
	Std. Deviation	1.4960	.4880	.4880	.3780
Total	Mean	4.3622	4.0109	4.6344	4.5914
	N	185	184	186	186
	Std. Deviation	1.0128	1.0506	.5934	.7387

Report

Previous Scheme		B16	D3
Assessor	Mean	4.6320	2.9127
	N	125	126
	Std. Deviation	.5613	1.0660
Weeded Post	Mean	4.6222	2.7333
	N	45	45
	Std. Deviation	.5347	.8090
Rank and File	Mean	4.0000	3.1429
	N	7	7
	Std. Deviation	1.0000	1.0690
Promotion	Mean	5.0000	4.1429
	N	7	7
	Std. Deviation	.0000	1.0690
Total	Mean	4.6196	2.9243
	N	184	185
	Std. Deviation	.5791	1.0346

APPENDIX XIII: Oneway ANOVA (SERVICE₁)

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A1	Between Groups	2.155	3	.718	.711	.547
	Within Groups	188.944	187	1.010		
	Total	191.099	190			
A2	Between Groups	2.200	3	.733	3.016	.031
	Within Groups	45.716	188	.243		
	Total	47.917	191			
A3	Between Groups	1.315	3	.438	.768	.514
	Within Groups	107.352	188	.571		
	Total	108.667	191			
A4	Between Groups	.983	3	.328	.354	.786
	Within Groups	173.090	187	.926		
	Total	174.073	190			
A11	Between Groups	7.583	3	2.528	2.586	.054
	Within Groups	182.763	187	.977		
	Total	190.346	190			
A12	Between Groups	.774	3	.258	.225	.879
	Within Groups	214.001	187	1.144		
	Total	214.775	190			
A13	Between Groups	5.026	3	1.675	2.003	.115
	Within Groups	157.219	188	.836		
	Total	162.245	191			
A14	Between Groups	1.408	3	.469	.436	.728
	Within Groups	202.545	188	1.077		
	Total	203.953	191			
A15	Between Groups	5.363	3	1.788	1.793	.150
	Within Groups	186.480	187	.997		
	Total	191.843	190			
A21	Between Groups	1.680	3	.560	1.001	.394
	Within Groups	105.190	188	.560		
	Total	106.870	191			
A22	Between Groups	7.297	3	2.432	2.991	.032
	Within Groups	150.459	185	.813		
	Total	157.757	188			
A23	Between Groups	.633	3	.211	.676	.568
	Within Groups	58.736	188	.312		
	Total	59.370	191			
A24	Between Groups	33.156	3	11.052	11.899	.000
	Within Groups	172.760	186	.929		
	Total	205.916	189			
A25	Between Groups	4.450	3	1.483	1.265	.288
	Within Groups	219.194	187	1.172		
	Total	223.644	190			
A26	Between Groups	2.635	3	.878	.961	.412
	Within Groups	170.957	187	.914		
	Total	173.592	190			
B1	Between Groups	.830	3	.277	.720	.541
	Within Groups	72.249	188	.384		
	Total	73.078	191			

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
B2	Between Groups	2.016	3	.672	1.960	.121
	Within Groups	64.463	188	.343		
	Total	66.479	191			
B3	Between Groups	8.885E-02	3	2.962E-02	.054	.983
	Within Groups	102.406	188	.545		
	Total	102.495	191			
B4	Between Groups	3.243	3	1.081	1.587	.194
	Within Groups	127.406	187	.681		
	Total	130.649	190			
B5	Between Groups	4.984	3	1.661	2.455	.065
	Within Groups	127.219	188	.677		
	Total	132.203	191			
B6	Between Groups	5.020	3	1.673	1.642	.181
	Within Groups	191.558	188	1.019		
	Total	196.578	191			
B11	Between Groups	2.629	3	.876	1.147	.331
	Within Groups	142.806	187	.764		
	Total	145.435	190			
B12	Between Groups	.319	3	.106	.102	.959
	Within Groups	194.675	187	1.041		
	Total	194.995	190			
B13	Between Groups	.509	3	.170	.671	.571
	Within Groups	47.333	187	.253		
	Total	47.843	190			
B14	Between Groups	1.239	3	.413	.798	.497
	Within Groups	96.256	186	.518		
	Total	97.495	189			
B15	Between Groups	1.808	3	.603	2.186	.091
	Within Groups	51.266	186	.276		
	Total	53.074	189			
B16	Between Groups	.950	3	.317	.953	.416
	Within Groups	61.766	186	.332		
	Total	62.716	189			
C1	Between Groups	3.292	3	1.097	2.098	.102
	Within Groups	97.818	187	.523		
	Total	101.110	190			
C2	Between Groups	1.532	3	.511	.555	.646
	Within Groups	172.227	187	.921		
	Total	173.759	190			
C3	Between Groups	7.766	3	2.589	3.190	.025
	Within Groups	150.950	186	.812		
	Total	158.716	189			
D1	Between Groups	1.182	3	.394	.471	.703
	Within Groups	157.147	188	.836		
	Total	158.328	191			
D2	Between Groups	7.703	3	2.568	2.306	.078
	Within Groups	209.277	188	1.113		
	Total	216.979	191			
D3	Between Groups	3.255	3	1.085	1.014	.388
	Within Groups	199.991	187	1.069		
	Total	203.246	190			

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
D4	Between Groups	5.648	3	1.883	2.348	.074
	Within Groups	150.722	188	.802		
	Total	156.370	191			
D5	Between Groups	2.823	3	.941	1.136	.336
	Within Groups	155.672	188	.828		
	Total	158.495	191			
E1	Between Groups	.970	3	.323	.998	.395
	Within Groups	60.946	188	.324		
	Total	61.917	191			
E2	Between Groups	.424	3	.141	.599	.616
	Within Groups	44.321	188	.236		
	Total	44.745	191			
E3	Between Groups	1.241	3	.414	.457	.713
	Within Groups	169.334	187	.906		
	Total	170.576	190			
E4	Between Groups	.850	3	.283	.289	.834
	Within Groups	182.524	186	.981		
	Total	183.374	189			
E5	Between Groups	1.549	3	.516	1.098	.351
	Within Groups	88.430	188	.470		
	Total	89.979	191			

Oneway

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A2	Between Groups	2.200	3	.733	3.016	.031
	Within Groups	45.716	188	.243		
	Total	47.917	191			
A22	Between Groups	7.297	3	2.432	2.991	.032
	Within Groups	150.459	185	.813		
	Total	157.757	188			
A24	Between Groups	33.156	3	11.052	11.899	.000
	Within Groups	172.760	186	.929		
	Total	205.916	189			
C3	Between Groups	7.766	3	2.589	3.190	.025
	Within Groups	150.950	186	.812		
	Total	158.716	189			
E2	Between Groups	.424	3	.141	.599	.616
	Within Groups	44.321	188	.236		
	Total	44.745	191			

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Years of service	(J) Years of service	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error
A2	1-6	7-15	.2069	.106
		16-24	6.300E-02	.114
		25 and above	-8.7644E-02	.136
	7-15	1-6	-.2069	.106
		16-24	-.1439	.086
		25 and above	-.2945*	.114
	16-24	1-6	-6.2997E-02	.114
		7-15	.1439	.086
		25 and above	-.1506	.122
	25 and above	1-6	8.764E-02	.136
		7-15	.2945*	.114
		16-24	.1506	.122
A22	1-6	7-15	-.2769	.197
		16-24	-.3049	.211
		25 and above	-.7440*	.251
	7-15	1-6	.2769	.197
		16-24	-2.8054E-02	.159
		25 and above	-.4672	.208
	16-24	1-6	.3049	.211
		7-15	2.805E-02	.159
		25 and above	-.4391	.223
	25 and above	1-6	.7440*	.251
		7-15	.4672	.208
		16-24	.4391	.223
A24	1-6	7-15	-.1034	.207
		16-24	.7857*	.224
		25 and above	.7541*	.269
	7-15	1-6	.1034	.207
		16-24	.8891*	.170
		25 and above	.8576*	.226
	16-24	1-6	-.7857*	.224
		7-15	-.8891*	.170
		25 and above	-3.1543E-02	.242
	25 and above	1-6	-.7541*	.269
		7-15	-.8576*	.226
		16-24	3.154E-02	.242
C3	1-6	7-15	-2.7409E-02	.196
		16-24	-6.3187E-02	.211
		25 and above	.5714	.251
	7-15	1-6	2.741E-02	.196
		16-24	-3.5778E-02	.158
		25 and above	.5988*	.208
	16-24	1-6	6.319E-02	.211
		7-15	3.578E-02	.158
		25 and above	.6346*	.222
	25 and above	1-6	-.5714	.251
		7-15	-.5988*	.208
		16-24	-.6346*	.222

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Years of service	(J) Years of service	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error
E2	1-6	7-15	4.598E-02	.104
		16-24	.1320	.113
		25 and above	2.299E-02	.134
	7-15	1-6	-4.5977E-02	.104
		16-24	8.599E-02	.085
		25 and above	-2.2989E-02	.112
	16-24	1-6	-.1320	.113
		7-15	-8.5986E-02	.085
		25 and above	-.1090	.120
	25 and above	1-6	-2.2989E-02	.134
		7-15	2.299E-02	.112
		16-24	.1090	.120

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Years of service	(J) Years of service	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
				Lower Bound
A2	1-6	7-15	.205	-6.4745E-02
		16-24	.946	-.2306
		25 and above	.918	-.4372
	7-15	1-6	.205	-.4785
		16-24	.342	-.3660
		25 and above	.047	-.5866
	16-24	1-6	.946	-.3566
		7-15	.342	-7.8162E-02
		25 and above	.603	-.4633
	25 and above	1-6	.918	-.2619
		7-15	.047	2.446E-03
		16-24	.603	-.1620
A22	1-6	7-15	.494	-.7817
		16-24	.473	-.8480
		25 and above	.016	-1.3885
	7-15	1-6	.494	-.2279
		16-24	.998	-.4359
		25 and above	.112	-1.0027
	16-24	1-6	.473	-.2381
		7-15	.998	-.3798
		25 and above	.198	-1.0108
	25 and above	1-6	.016	9.957E-02
		7-15	.112	-6.8383E-02
		16-24	.198	-.1326
A24	1-6	7-15	.959	-.6343
		16-24	.003	.2098
		25 and above	.026	6.281E-02
	7-15	1-6	.959	-.4274
		16-24	.000	.4525
		25 and above	.001	.2771
	16-24	1-6	.003	-1.3615
		7-15	.000	-1.3258
		25 and above	.999	-.6534
	25 and above	1-6	.026	-1.4454
		7-15	.001	-1.4381
		16-24	.999	-.5903
C3	1-6	7-15	.999	-.5310
		16-24	.991	-.6057
		25 and above	.103	-7.2365E-02
	7-15	1-6	.999	-.4762
		16-24	.996	-.4423
		25 and above	.021	6.455E-02
	16-24	1-6	.991	-.4793
		7-15	.996	-.3708
		25 and above	.022	6.349E-02
	25 and above	1-6	.103	-1.2152
		7-15	.021	-1.1331
		16-24	.022	-1.2057

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Years of service	(J) Years of service	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
				Lower Bound
E2	1-6	7-15	.971	-.2215
		16-24	.644	-.1571
		25 and above	.998	-.3212
	7-15	1-6	.971	-.3134
		16-24	.743	-.1327
		25 and above	.997	-.3106
	16-24	1-6	.644	-.4211
		7-15	.743	-.3046
		25 and above	.800	-.4168
	25 and above	1-6	.998	-.3672
		7-15	.997	-.2646
		16-24	.800	-.1988

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Years of service	(J) Years of service	95% Confidence Interval
			Upper Bound
A2	1-6	7-15	.4785
		16-24	.3566
		25 and above	.2619
	7-15	1-6	6.475E-02
		16-24	7.816E-02
		25 and above	-2.4463E-03
	16-24	1-6	.2306
		7-15	.3660
		25 and above	.1620
	25 and above	1-6	.4372
		7-15	.5866
		16-24	.4633
A22	1-6	7-15	.2279
		16-24	.2381
		25 and above	-9.9566E-02
	7-15	1-6	.7817
		16-24	.3798
		25 and above	6.838E-02
	16-24	1-6	.8480
		7-15	.4359
		25 and above	.1326
	25 and above	1-6	1.3885
		7-15	1.0027
		16-24	1.0108
A24	1-6	7-15	.4274
		16-24	1.3615
		25 and above	1.4454
	7-15	1-6	.6343
		16-24	1.3258
		25 and above	1.4381
	16-24	1-6	-.2098
		7-15	-.4525
		25 and above	.5903
	25 and above	1-6	-6.2811E-02
		7-15	-.2771
		16-24	.6534
C3	1-6	7-15	.4762
		16-24	.4793
		25 and above	1.2152
	7-15	1-6	.5310
		16-24	.3708
		25 and above	1.1331
	16-24	1-6	.6057
		7-15	.4423
		25 and above	1.2057
	25 and above	1-6	7.236E-02
		7-15	-6.4555E-02
		16-24	-6.3493E-02

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Years of service	(J) Years of service	95% Confidence Interval
			Upper Bound
E2	1-6	7-15	.3134
		16-24	.4211
		25 and above	.3672
	7-15	1-6	.2215
		16-24	.3046
		25 and above	.2646
	16-24	1-6	.1571
		7-15	.1327
		25 and above	.1988
	25 and above	1-6	.3212
		7-15	.3106
		16-24	.4168

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

A2

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Years of service	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
7-15	87	4.4138	
16-24	52	4.5577	4.5577
1-6	29	4.6207	4.6207
25 and above	24		4.7083
Sig.		.266	.549

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 37.427.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

A22

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Years of service	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
1-6	28	3.4643	
7-15	85	3.7412	3.7412
16-24	52	3.7692	3.7692
25 and above	24		4.2083
Sig.		.466	.116

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 36.908.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

A24

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Years of service	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
16-24	51	3.4902	
25 and above	23	3.5217	
1-6	29		4.2759
7-15	87		4.3793
Sig.		.999	.968

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 36.676.
- The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

C3

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Years of service	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		1	2
25 and above	24	3.2500	
1-6	28		3.8214
7-15	86		3.8488
16-24	52		3.8846
Sig.		1.000	.990

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 36.955.
- The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

E2

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Years of service	N	Subset for alpha = .05
		1
16-24	52	4.5577
7-15	87	4.6437
25 and above	24	4.6667
1-6	29	4.6897
Sig.		.642

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

- Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 37.427.
- The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Means: (SERVICE1)

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
A2 * Years of service	192	100.0%	0	.0%	192	100.0%
A22 * Years of service	189	98.4%	3	1.6%	192	100.0%
A24 * Years of service	190	99.0%	2	1.0%	192	100.0%
C3 * Years of service	190	99.0%	2	1.0%	192	100.0%

Report

Years of service		A2	A22	A24	C3
1-6	Mean	4.6207	3.4643	4.2759	3.8214
	N	29	28	29	28
	Std. Deviation	.4938	.9993	.7019	.9449
7-15	Mean	4.4138	3.7412	4.3793	3.8488
	N	87	85	87	86
	Std. Deviation	.4954	.9405	.6332	.8747
16-24	Mean	4.5577	3.7692	3.4902	3.8846
	N	52	52	51	52
	Std. Deviation	.5015	.8072	1.2864	.8321
25 and above	Mean	4.7083	4.2083	3.5217	3.2500
	N	24	24	23	24
	Std. Deviation	.4643	.8330	1.3774	1.0734
Total	Mean	4.5208	3.7672	4.0211	3.7789
	N	192	189	190	190
	Std. Deviation	.5009	.9160	1.0438	.9164

APPENDIX XIV: T-Test: (GENDER)

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
A1	Male	81	3.9383	.7474	8.305E-02
	Female	110	3.3818	1.1003	.1049
A2	Male	82	4.4512	.5007	5.529E-02
	Female	110	4.5727	.4969	4.738E-02
A3	Male	82	4.0732	.6626	7.317E-02
	Female	110	3.8000	.7991	7.619E-02
A4	Male	82	3.6220	1.0140	.1120
	Female	109	3.6514	.9167	8.780E-02
A11	Male	82	4.2561	1.0519	.1162
	Female	109	4.4495	.9573	9.169E-02
A12	Male	82	4.2561	1.0281	.1135
	Female	109	4.3486	1.0919	.1046
A13	Male	82	4.0122	.7453	8.230E-02
	Female	110	3.7818	1.0261	9.783E-02
A14	Male	82	3.6829	.9010	9.950E-02
	Female	110	3.3364	1.1028	.1051
A15	Male	81	3.5926	1.0462	.1162
	Female	110	3.8273	.9660	9.211E-02
A21	Male	82	3.9756	.7532	8.318E-02
	Female	110	3.9727	.7476	7.128E-02
A22	Male	82	3.8537	.8624	9.524E-02
	Female	107	3.7009	.9538	9.221E-02
A23	Male	82	4.1463	.5471	6.042E-02
	Female	110	4.2818	.5607	5.346E-02
A24	Male	81	3.9259	1.0341	.1149
	Female	109	4.0917	1.0501	.1006
A25	Male	82	3.6220	.9248	.1021
	Female	109	3.3670	1.1837	.1134
A26	Male	82	3.6585	.8780	9.696E-02
	Female	109	3.4312	1.0034	9.611E-02
B1	Male	82	4.6829	.7678	8.479E-02
	Female	110	4.8818	.4640	4.424E-02
B2	Male	82	4.5122	.6333	6.994E-02
	Female	110	4.7273	.5403	5.151E-02
B3	Male	82	4.5366	.7403	8.175E-02
	Female	110	4.6273	.7277	6.938E-02
B4	Male	81	4.3086	.8161	9.068E-02
	Female	110	4.5091	.8322	7.935E-02
B5	Male	82	4.2683	.8172	9.025E-02
	Female	110	4.4273	.8400	8.009E-02
B6	Male	82	4.0732	.9530	.1052
	Female	110	4.0273	1.0619	.1013
B11	Male	82	3.8293	.8862	9.786E-02
	Female	109	3.6972	.8661	8.295E-02
B12	Male	82	3.1829	.9445	.1043
	Female	109	2.8532	1.0437	9.997E-02
B13	Male	82	4.2317	.4527	4.999E-02
	Female	109	4.3028	.5358	5.132E-02
B14	Male	82	4.2561	.6815	7.526E-02
	Female	108	4.3241	.7467	7.185E-02

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
B15	Male	81	4.6420	.5547	6.164E-02
	Female	109	4.6606	.5132	4.915E-02
B16	Male	81	4.6296	.5798	6.442E-02
	Female	109	4.6147	.5759	5.516E-02
C1	Male	82	4.0976	.6779	7.486E-02
	Female	109	4.1009	.7691	7.367E-02
C2	Male	82	3.6220	.8555	9.447E-02
	Female	109	3.5872	1.0293	9.859E-02
C3	Male	82	3.8537	.8906	9.835E-02
	Female	108	3.7222	.9356	9.003E-02
D1	Male	82	2.7195	.9721	.1074
	Female	110	2.6364	.8645	8.242E-02
D2	Male	82	2.9512	.9926	.1096
	Female	110	2.6182	1.1003	.1049
D3	Male	81	3.1605	1.0057	.1117
	Female	110	2.7727	1.0286	9.807E-02
D4	Male	82	3.6707	.8323	9.191E-02
	Female	110	3.7636	.9571	9.126E-02
D5	Male	82	3.6098	.8279	9.142E-02
	Female	110	3.5727	.9717	9.265E-02
E1	Male	82	4.6098	.5612	6.198E-02
	Female	110	4.6727	.5764	5.496E-02
E2	Male	82	4.5610	.4993	5.514E-02
	Female	110	4.6818	.4679	4.461E-02
E3	Male	81	4.0741	.7546	8.385E-02
	Female	110	3.8636	1.0621	.1013
E4	Male	82	3.5366	.9053	9.998E-02
	Female	108	3.2130	1.0236	9.849E-02
E5	Male	82	4.3049	.6419	7.089E-02
	Female	110	4.3364	.7203	6.868E-02

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
A1	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	52.918	.000
A2	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.396	.530
A3	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	4.479	.036
A4	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	2.297	.131
A11	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	1.121	.291
A12	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.267	.606
A13	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	12.318	.001
A14	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	11.586	.001
A15	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	2.933	.088
A21	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.327	.568
A22	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	2.029	.156
A23	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	3.574	.060
A24	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.105	.747
A25	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	10.673	.001
A26	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	2.580	.110
B1	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	16.278	.000
B2	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	11.540	.001
B3	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.877	.350
B4	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.206	.651
B5	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.169	.681
B6	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	1.339	.249
B11	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.663	.417
B12	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	1.055	.306
B13	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	7.368	.007

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
B14	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	1.290	.257
B15	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.207	.650
B16	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.138	.711
C1	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.866	.353
C2	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	2.986	.086
C3	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.870	.352
D1	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.620	.432
D2	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	4.760	.030
D3	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.111	.740
D4	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	3.274	.072
D5	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	2.907	.090
E1	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.650	.421
E2	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	8.894	.003
E3	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	7.235	.008
E4	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	1.843	.176
E5	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	1.280	.259

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
A1	Equal variances assumed	3.931	189	.000	.5565
	Equal variances not assumed	4.159	187.886	.000	.5565
A2	Equal variances assumed	-1.671	190	.096	-.1215
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.669	173.943	.097	-.1215
A3	Equal variances assumed	2.517	190	.013	.2732
	Equal variances not assumed	2.586	187.804	.010	.2732
A4	Equal variances assumed	-.210	189	.834	-2.9425E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.207	164.566	.836	-2.9425E-02
A11	Equal variances assumed	-1.325	189	.187	-.1934
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.307	165.266	.193	-.1934
A12	Equal variances assumed	-.594	189	.553	-9.2526E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.599	179.724	.550	-9.2526E-02
A13	Equal variances assumed	1.722	190	.087	.2304
	Equal variances not assumed	1.802	189.890	.073	.2304
A14	Equal variances assumed	2.325	190	.021	.3466
	Equal variances not assumed	2.394	188.362	.018	.3466
A15	Equal variances assumed	-1.602	189	.111	-.2347
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.582	164.423	.115	-.2347
A21	Equal variances assumed	.026	190	.979	2.882E-03
	Equal variances not assumed	.026	173.943	.979	2.882E-03
A22	Equal variances assumed	1.137	187	.257	.1527
	Equal variances not assumed	1.152	181.895	.251	.1527
A23	Equal variances assumed	-1.673	190	.096	-.1355
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.679	176.902	.095	-.1355
A24	Equal variances assumed	-1.083	188	.280	-.1658
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.086	173.922	.279	-.1658
A25	Equal variances assumed	1.614	189	.108	.2550
	Equal variances not assumed	1.671	188.710	.096	.2550
A26	Equal variances assumed	1.634	189	.104	.2273
	Equal variances not assumed	1.665	184.664	.098	.2273
B1	Equal variances assumed	-2.227	190	.027	-.1989
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.080	124.253	.040	-.1989
B2	Equal variances assumed	-2.534	190	.012	-.2151
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.476	158.143	.014	-.2151
B3	Equal variances assumed	-.848	190	.398	-9.0687E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.846	173.009	.399	-9.0687E-02
B4	Equal variances assumed	-1.659	189	.099	-.2004
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.664	174.378	.098	-.2004
B5	Equal variances assumed	-1.312	190	.191	-.1590
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.318	177.171	.189	-.1590
B6	Equal variances assumed	.309	190	.757	4.590E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.314	183.512	.754	4.590E-02
B11	Equal variances assumed	1.032	189	.303	.1320
	Equal variances not assumed	1.029	172.449	.305	.1320
B12	Equal variances assumed	2.250	189	.026	.3297
	Equal variances not assumed	2.282	182.604	.024	.3297
B13	Equal variances assumed	-.968	189	.334	-7.1045E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.992	186.417	.323	-7.1045E-02

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
B14	Equal variances assumed	-.645	188	.520	-6.7977E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.653	181.685	.514	-6.7977E-02
B15	Equal variances assumed	-.238	188	.812	-1.8575E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.236	164.750	.814	-1.8575E-02
B16	Equal variances assumed	.176	188	.860	1.495E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.176	171.877	.860	1.495E-02
C1	Equal variances assumed	-.031	189	.975	-3.3565E-03
	Equal variances not assumed	-.032	184.254	.975	-3.3565E-03
C2	Equal variances assumed	.248	189	.804	3.480E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.255	187.081	.799	3.480E-02
C3	Equal variances assumed	.979	188	.329	.1314
	Equal variances not assumed	.986	178.661	.326	.1314
D1	Equal variances assumed	.625	190	.533	8.315E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.614	162.642	.540	8.315E-02
D2	Equal variances assumed	2.162	190	.032	.3330
	Equal variances not assumed	2.195	183.156	.029	.3330
D3	Equal variances assumed	2.599	189	.010	.3878
	Equal variances not assumed	2.608	174.652	.010	.3878
D4	Equal variances assumed	-.703	190	.483	-9.2905E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.717	185.475	.474	-9.2905E-02
D5	Equal variances assumed	.278	190	.781	3.703E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.284	186.574	.776	3.703E-02
E1	Equal variances assumed	-.757	190	.450	-6.2971E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.760	177.102	.448	-6.2971E-02
E2	Equal variances assumed	-1.720	190	.087	-.1208
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.704	168.195	.090	-.1208
E3	Equal variances assumed	1.522	189	.130	.2104
	Equal variances not assumed	1.601	188.788	.111	.2104
E4	Equal variances assumed	2.268	188	.024	.3236
	Equal variances not assumed	2.306	183.603	.022	.3236
E5	Equal variances assumed	-.314	190	.754	-3.1486E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.319	183.972	.750	-3.1486E-02

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			Lower	Upper
A1	Equal variances assumed	.1416	.2772	.8357
	Equal variances not assumed	.1338	.2925	.8204
A2	Equal variances assumed	7.274E-02	-.2650	2.197E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	7.282E-02	-.2652	2.221E-02
A3	Equal variances assumed	.1085	5.907E-02	.4873
	Equal variances not assumed	.1056	6.479E-02	.4816
A4	Equal variances assumed	.1403	-.3061	.2473
	Equal variances not assumed	.1423	-.3104	.2515
A11	Equal variances assumed	.1460	-.4815	9.461E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1480	-.4856	9.875E-02
A12	Equal variances assumed	.1557	-.3996	.2146
	Equal variances not assumed	.1544	-.3971	.2121
A13	Equal variances assumed	.1338	-3.3509E-02	.4943
	Equal variances not assumed	.1278	-2.1806E-02	.4826
A14	Equal variances assumed	.1491	5.255E-02	.6406
	Equal variances not assumed	.1448	6.100E-02	.6321
A15	Equal variances assumed	.1465	-.5237	5.434E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1483	-.5275	5.815E-02
A21	Equal variances assumed	.1094	-.2130	.2187
	Equal variances not assumed	.1095	-.2133	.2191
A22	Equal variances assumed	.1343	-.1123	.4177
	Equal variances not assumed	.1326	-.1088	.4143
A23	Equal variances assumed	8.096E-02	-.2952	2.422E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	8.067E-02	-.2947	2.372E-02
A24	Equal variances assumed	.1531	-.4677	.1361
	Equal variances not assumed	.1527	-.4672	.1356
A25	Equal variances assumed	.1579	-5.6557E-02	.5665
	Equal variances not assumed	.1526	-4.6031E-02	.5560
A26	Equal variances assumed	.1391	-4.7079E-02	.5018
	Equal variances not assumed	.1365	-4.1992E-02	.4967
B1	Equal variances assumed	8.932E-02	-.3751	-2.2696E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	9.564E-02	-.3882	-9.5974E-03
B2	Equal variances assumed	8.488E-02	-.3825	-4.7653E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	8.686E-02	-.3866	-4.3518E-02
B3	Equal variances assumed	.1070	-.3017	.1203
	Equal variances not assumed	.1072	-.3023	.1209
B4	Equal variances assumed	.1209	-.4388	3.795E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1205	-.4383	3.737E-02
B5	Equal variances assumed	.1212	-.3980	8.000E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1207	-.3971	7.914E-02
B6	Equal variances assumed	.1484	-.2468	.3386
	Equal variances not assumed	.1460	-.2422	.3340
B11	Equal variances assumed	.1279	-.1202	.3843
	Equal variances not assumed	.1283	-.1212	.3852
B12	Equal variances assumed	.1465	4.066E-02	.6188
	Equal variances not assumed	.1445	4.466E-02	.6148
B13	Equal variances assumed	7.337E-02	-.2158	7.368E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	7.165E-02	-.2124	7.029E-02

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			Lower	Upper
B14	Equal variances assumed	.1054	-.2758	.1399
	Equal variances not assumed	.1041	-.2733	.1373
B15	Equal variances assumed	7.793E-02	-.1723	.1352
	Equal variances not assumed	7.883E-02	-.1742	.1371
B16	Equal variances assumed	8.472E-02	-.1522	.1821
	Equal variances not assumed	8.481E-02	-.1524	.1823
C1	Equal variances assumed	.1069	-.2143	.2076
	Equal variances not assumed	.1050	-.2106	.2039
C2	Equal variances assumed	.1401	-.2416	.3112
	Equal variances not assumed	.1365	-.2346	.3042
C3	Equal variances assumed	.1342	-.1334	.3962
	Equal variances not assumed	.1333	-.1317	.3945
D1	Equal variances assumed	.1330	-.1793	.3456
	Equal variances not assumed	.1353	-.1841	.3504
D2	Equal variances assumed	.1540	2.921E-02	.6369
	Equal variances not assumed	.1517	3.368E-02	.6324
D3	Equal variances assumed	.1492	9.348E-02	.6821
	Equal variances not assumed	.1487	9.433E-02	.6812
D4	Equal variances assumed	.1322	-.3536	.1678
	Equal variances not assumed	.1295	-.3484	.1626
D5	Equal variances assumed	.1332	-.2258	.2998
	Equal variances not assumed	.1302	-.2197	.2938
E1	Equal variances assumed	8.316E-02	-.2270	.1011
	Equal variances not assumed	8.284E-02	-.2264	.1005
E2	Equal variances assumed	7.026E-02	-.2594	1.774E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	7.093E-02	-.2609	1.918E-02
E3	Equal variances assumed	.1382	-6.2270E-02	.4831
	Equal variances not assumed	.1315	-4.8906E-02	.4698
E4	Equal variances assumed	.1427	4.208E-02	.6052
	Equal variances not assumed	.1403	4.673E-02	.6005
E5	Equal variances assumed	.1004	-.2295	.1665
	Equal variances not assumed	9.870E-02	-.2262	.1632

APPENDIX XV: T-Test: (BRANCH1)

Group Statistics

	BRANCH1	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
A1	Near HQ	77	3.5065	.9817	.1119
	Other States	114	3.6930	1.0143	9.500E-02
A2	Near HQ	77	4.5195	.5029	5.731E-02
	Other States	115	4.5217	.5017	4.679E-02
A3	Near HQ	77	3.8442	.7791	8.878E-02
	Other States	115	3.9652	.7366	6.869E-02
A4	Near HQ	76	3.4737	1.0260	.1177
	Other States	115	3.7478	.8968	8.363E-02
A11	Near HQ	76	4.3158	1.0226	.1173
	Other States	115	4.4000	.9894	9.226E-02
A12	Near HQ	76	4.0921	1.2240	.1404
	Other States	115	4.4522	.9200	8.579E-02
A13	Near HQ	77	3.9091	.9758	.1112
	Other States	115	3.8609	.8874	8.275E-02
A14	Near HQ	77	3.3896	1.1257	.1283
	Other States	115	3.5478	.9665	9.013E-02
A15	Near HQ	77	3.9481	.9017	.1028
	Other States	114	3.5789	1.0467	9.803E-02
A21	Near HQ	77	3.9221	.7908	9.012E-02
	Other States	115	4.0087	.7194	6.708E-02
A22	Near HQ	75	3.5867	.9877	.1140
	Other States	114	3.8860	.8493	7.955E-02
A23	Near HQ	77	4.1688	.5939	6.768E-02
	Other States	115	4.2609	.5313	4.954E-02
A24	Near HQ	77	4.0000	1.0882	.1240
	Other States	113	4.0354	1.0171	9.568E-02
A25	Near HQ	76	3.2368	1.1985	.1375
	Other States	115	3.6348	.9763	9.104E-02
A26	Near HQ	76	3.4868	.9729	.1116
	Other States	115	3.5565	.9477	8.837E-02
B1	Near HQ	77	4.7403	.7505	8.553E-02
	Other States	115	4.8348	.5118	4.773E-02
B2	Near HQ	77	4.5974	.6337	7.222E-02
	Other States	115	4.6609	.5602	5.224E-02
B3	Near HQ	77	4.4416	.8958	.1021
	Other States	115	4.6870	.5829	5.435E-02
B4	Near HQ	76	4.2500	.9678	.1110
	Other States	115	4.5391	.7045	6.569E-02
B5	Near HQ	77	4.2468	.8759	9.982E-02
	Other States	115	4.4348	.7962	7.424E-02
B6	Near HQ	77	3.9740	1.0256	.1169
	Other States	115	4.0957	1.0085	9.404E-02
B11	Near HQ	76	3.7895	.8052	9.237E-02
	Other States	115	3.7304	.9207	8.586E-02
B12	Near HQ	76	3.0132	1.0391	.1192
	Other States	115	2.9826	.9998	9.324E-02
B13	Near HQ	76	4.1842	.4820	5.528E-02
	Other States	115	4.3304	.5082	4.739E-02
B14	Near HQ	75	4.2400	.6944	8.018E-02
	Other States	115	4.3304	.7342	6.846E-02

Group Statistics

	BRANCH1	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
B15	Near HQ	76	4.5658	.5250	6.022E-02
	Other States	114	4.7105	.5275	4.941E-02
B16	Near HQ	76	4.5000	.6000	6.882E-02
	Other States	114	4.7018	.5474	5.127E-02
C1	Near HQ	77	3.9351	.8003	9.120E-02
	Other States	114	4.2105	.6582	6.164E-02
C2	Near HQ	77	3.3636	1.0376	.1182
	Other States	114	3.7632	.8653	8.104E-02
C3	Near HQ	77	3.8961	.8673	9.884E-02
	Other States	113	3.6991	.9438	8.879E-02
D1	Near HQ	77	2.4026	.8624	9.828E-02
	Other States	115	2.8522	.9007	8.399E-02
D2	Near HQ	77	2.4156	1.0046	.1145
	Other States	115	2.9913	1.0471	9.764E-02
D3	Near HQ	76	2.6711	1.1122	.1276
	Other States	115	3.1130	.9437	8.800E-02
D4	Near HQ	77	3.9351	.9081	.1035
	Other States	115	3.5826	.8784	8.191E-02
D5	Near HQ	77	3.4416	.9247	.1054
	Other States	115	3.6870	.8921	8.319E-02
E1	Near HQ	77	4.5065	.6412	7.307E-02
	Other States	115	4.7391	.4971	4.636E-02
E2	Near HQ	77	4.5714	.4981	5.677E-02
	Other States	115	4.6696	.4724	4.405E-02
E3	Near HQ	76	3.7500	1.0214	.1172
	Other States	115	4.0870	.8742	8.152E-02
E4	Near HQ	76	3.1316	1.0626	.1219
	Other States	114	3.5000	.9048	8.474E-02
E5	Near HQ	77	4.3117	.6541	7.455E-02
	Other States	115	4.3304	.7099	6.619E-02

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
A1	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.337	.562
A2	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.004	.952
A3	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.673	.413
A4	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	6.724	.010
A11	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.187	.666
A12	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	8.277	.004
A13	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.346	.557
A14	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	3.209	.075
A15	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	9.080	.003
A21	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.510	.476
A22	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	7.379	.007
A23	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.011	.917
A24	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.521	.471
A25	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	8.585	.004
A26	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.103	.748
B1	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	4.141	.043
B2	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	1.492	.223
B3	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	14.475	.000
B4	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	7.645	.006
B5	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	1.347	.247
B6	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.225	.636
B11	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	1.953	.164
B12	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.001	.979
B13	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	7.456	.007

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
B14	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.893	.346
B15	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	4.091	.045
B16	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	7.019	.009
C1	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.016	.901
C2	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	12.133	.001
C3	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	2.081	.151
D1	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.616	.434
D2	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.493	.483
D3	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	5.077	.025
D4	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.142	.706
D5	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.292	.589
E1	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	9.426	.002
E2	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	5.921	.016
E3	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	2.607	.108
E4	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	2.398	.123
E5	Equal variances assumed Equal variances not assumed	.035	.852

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
A1	Equal variances assumed	-1.263	189	.208	-.1865
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.271	166.788	.206	-.1865
A2	Equal variances assumed	-.031	190	.976	-2.2586E-03
	Equal variances not assumed	-.031	162.836	.976	-2.2586E-03
A3	Equal variances assumed	-1.091	190	.277	-.1211
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.078	156.770	.282	-.1211
A4	Equal variances assumed	-1.952	189	.052	-.2741
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.899	145.464	.060	-.2741
A11	Equal variances assumed	-.568	189	.571	-8.4211E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.564	156.984	.573	-8.4211E-02
A12	Equal variances assumed	-2.317	189	.022	-.3601
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.188	129.578	.030	-.3601
A13	Equal variances assumed	.355	190	.723	4.822E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.348	152.336	.728	4.822E-02
A14	Equal variances assumed	-1.040	190	.300	-.1582
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.009	145.846	.315	-.1582
A15	Equal variances assumed	2.525	189	.012	.3691
	Equal variances not assumed	2.599	178.079	.010	.3691
A21	Equal variances assumed	-.786	190	.433	-8.6618E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.771	152.358	.442	-8.6618E-02
A22	Equal variances assumed	-2.220	187	.028	-.2993
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.152	141.576	.033	-.2993
A23	Equal variances assumed	-1.122	190	.263	-9.2038E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.097	150.461	.274	-9.2038E-02
A24	Equal variances assumed	-.229	188	.819	-3.5398E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.226	155.918	.822	-3.5398E-02
A25	Equal variances assumed	-2.516	189	.013	-.3979
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.413	137.770	.017	-.3979
A26	Equal variances assumed	-.492	189	.623	-6.9680E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.489	157.745	.625	-6.9680E-02
B1	Equal variances assumed	-1.038	190	.301	-9.4523E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.965	122.765	.336	-9.4523E-02
B2	Equal variances assumed	-.730	190	.466	-6.3467E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.712	149.121	.478	-6.3467E-02
B3	Equal variances assumed	-2.300	190	.023	-.2454
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.122	118.830	.036	-.2454
B4	Equal variances assumed	-2.388	189	.018	-.2891
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.241	126.512	.027	-.2891
B5	Equal variances assumed	-1.540	190	.125	-.1880
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.511	152.273	.133	-.1880
B6	Equal variances assumed	-.813	190	.417	-.1216
	Equal variances not assumed	-.811	161.211	.419	-.1216
B11	Equal variances assumed	.456	189	.649	5.904E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.468	174.761	.640	5.904E-02
B12	Equal variances assumed	.203	189	.839	3.055E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.202	156.346	.840	3.055E-02
B13	Equal variances assumed	-1.986	189	.048	-.1462
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.008	166.555	.046	-.1462

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
B14	Equal variances assumed	-.848	188	.398	-9.0435E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.858	164.480	.392	-9.0435E-02
B15	Equal variances assumed	-1.856	188	.065	-.1447
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.858	161.413	.065	-.1447
B16	Equal variances assumed	-2.395	188	.018	-.2018
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.351	150.559	.020	-.2018
C1	Equal variances assumed	-2.598	189	.010	-.2755
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.502	141.444	.013	-.2755
C2	Equal variances assumed	-2.886	189	.004	-.3995
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.787	142.956	.006	-.3995
C3	Equal variances assumed	1.459	188	.146	.1970
	Equal variances not assumed	1.483	172.100	.140	.1970
D1	Equal variances assumed	-3.448	190	.001	-.4496
	Equal variances not assumed	-3.478	167.867	.001	-.4496
D2	Equal variances assumed	-3.795	190	.000	-.5757
	Equal variances not assumed	-3.826	167.643	.000	-.5757
D3	Equal variances assumed	-2.949	189	.004	-.4420
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.852	142.175	.005	-.4420
D4	Equal variances assumed	2.688	190	.008	.3525
	Equal variances not assumed	2.670	159.358	.008	.3525
D5	Equal variances assumed	-1.841	190	.067	-.2454
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.828	159.060	.069	-.2454
E1	Equal variances assumed	-2.825	190	.005	-.2326
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.688	134.918	.008	-.2326
E2	Equal variances assumed	-1.380	190	.169	-9.8137E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.366	157.120	.174	-9.8137E-02
E3	Equal variances assumed	-2.437	189	.016	-.3370
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.361	143.127	.020	-.3370
E4	Equal variances assumed	-2.563	188	.011	-.3684
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.482	142.867	.014	-.3684
E5	Equal variances assumed	-.185	190	.853	-1.8746E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-.188	171.867	.851	-1.8746E-02

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			Lower	Upper
A1	Equal variances assumed	.1477	-.4779	.1049
	Equal variances not assumed	.1468	-.4763	.1033
A2	Equal variances assumed	7.395E-02	-.1481	.1436
	Equal variances not assumed	7.398E-02	-.1483	.1438
A3	Equal variances assumed	.1110	-.3400	9.791E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1123	-.3428	.1007
A4	Equal variances assumed	.1405	-.5512	2.936E-03
	Equal variances not assumed	.1444	-.5595	1.120E-02
A11	Equal variances assumed	.1482	-.3766	.2082
	Equal variances not assumed	.1492	-.3790	.2106
A12	Equal variances assumed	.1554	-.6666	-5.3536E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1645	-.6856	-3.4549E-02
A13	Equal variances assumed	.1360	-.2201	.3165
	Equal variances not assumed	.1386	-.2256	.3221
A14	Equal variances assumed	.1521	-.4583	.1419
	Equal variances not assumed	.1568	-.4681	.1516
A15	Equal variances assumed	.1462	8.077E-02	.6574
	Equal variances not assumed	.1420	8.885E-02	.6494
A21	Equal variances assumed	.1103	-.3041	.1309
	Equal variances not assumed	.1123	-.3086	.1353
A22	Equal variances assumed	.1348	-.5652	-3.3386E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1390	-.5742	-2.4418E-02
A23	Equal variances assumed	8.204E-02	-.2539	6.979E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	8.387E-02	-.2578	7.368E-02
A24	Equal variances assumed	.1546	-.3404	.2696
	Equal variances not assumed	.1566	-.3448	.2740
A25	Equal variances assumed	.1582	-.7100	-8.5912E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1649	-.7240	-7.1893E-02
A26	Equal variances assumed	.1416	-.3490	.2096
	Equal variances not assumed	.1423	-.3508	.2115
B1	Equal variances assumed	9.106E-02	-.2741	8.510E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	9.794E-02	-.2884	9.935E-02
B2	Equal variances assumed	8.698E-02	-.2350	.1081
	Equal variances not assumed	8.913E-02	-.2396	.1127
B3	Equal variances assumed	.1067	-.4558	-3.4977E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1157	-.4744	-1.6388E-02
B4	Equal variances assumed	.1211	-.5280	-5.0257E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1290	-.5444	-3.3862E-02
B5	Equal variances assumed	.1221	-.4288	5.276E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1244	-.4338	5.775E-02
B6	Equal variances assumed	.1495	-.4166	.1733
	Equal variances not assumed	.1500	-.4179	.1746
B11	Equal variances assumed	.1296	-.1966	.3147
	Equal variances not assumed	.1261	-.1899	.3079
B12	Equal variances assumed	.1501	-.2656	.3267
	Equal variances not assumed	.1513	-.2684	.3295
B13	Equal variances assumed	7.361E-02	-.2914	-1.0164E-03
	Equal variances not assumed	7.282E-02	-.2900	-2.4625E-03

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			Lower	Upper
B14	Equal variances assumed	.1067	-.3009	.1200
	Equal variances not assumed	.1054	-.2986	.1177
B15	Equal variances assumed	7.797E-02	-.2985	9.074E-03
	Equal variances not assumed	7.790E-02	-.2986	9.089E-03
B16	Equal variances assumed	8.426E-02	-.3680	-3.5545E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	8.582E-02	-.3713	-3.2185E-02
C1	Equal variances assumed	.1060	-.4846	-6.6339E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1101	-.4931	-5.7849E-02
C2	Equal variances assumed	.1384	-.6726	-.1265
	Equal variances not assumed	.1433	-.6829	-.1162
C3	Equal variances assumed	.1350	-6.9348E-02	.4633
	Equal variances not assumed	.1329	-6.5260E-02	.4592
D1	Equal variances assumed	.1304	-.7068	-.1924
	Equal variances not assumed	.1293	-.7048	-.1944
D2	Equal variances assumed	.1517	-.8750	-.2765
	Equal variances not assumed	.1505	-.8728	-.2787
D3	Equal variances assumed	.1499	-.7377	-.1463
	Equal variances not assumed	.1550	-.7484	-.1356
D4	Equal variances assumed	.1311	9.383E-02	.6111
	Equal variances not assumed	.1320	9.179E-02	.6131
D5	Equal variances assumed	.1333	-.5083	1.755E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1343	-.5106	1.976E-02
E1	Equal variances assumed	8.235E-02	-.3951	-7.0205E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	8.654E-02	-.4038	-6.1494E-02
E2	Equal variances assumed	7.110E-02	-.2384	4.211E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	7.185E-02	-.2401	4.379E-02
E3	Equal variances assumed	.1383	-.6097	-6.4178E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1427	-.6191	-5.4809E-02
E4	Equal variances assumed	.1438	-.6520	-8.4823E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	.1485	-.6619	-7.4979E-02
E5	Equal variances assumed	.1013	-.2186	.1811
	Equal variances not assumed	9.969E-02	-.2155	.1780

APPENDIX XVI: Reliability

***** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 172.0

N of Items = 40

Alpha = .8423

Reliability

***** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	A1	3.6395	.9842	172.0
2.	A2	4.5233	.5009	172.0
3.	A3	3.9070	.7355	172.0
4.	A4	3.6453	.9714	172.0
5.	A11	4.4070	.9413	172.0
6.	A12	4.3605	1.0135	172.0
7.	A13	3.8953	.9116	172.0
8.	A14	3.5233	1.0229	172.0
9.	A15	3.7093	1.0358	172.0
10.	A21	4.0291	.7208	172.0
11.	A22	3.7965	.9044	172.0
12.	A23	4.2384	.5683	172.0
13.	A24	4.0233	1.0483	172.0
14.	A25	3.5174	1.0894	172.0
15.	A26	3.5814	.9608	172.0
16.	B1	4.7849	.6445	172.0
17.	B2	4.6570	.5555	172.0
18.	B3	4.5930	.7154	172.0
19.	B4	4.4186	.8231	172.0
20.	B5	4.3372	.8392	172.0
21.	B6	4.0930	.9868	172.0
22.	B11	3.7791	.8570	172.0
23.	B12	3.0058	1.0116	172.0
24.	B13	4.2791	.4991	172.0
25.	B14	4.3023	.7185	172.0
26.	B15	4.6628	.5322	172.0
27.	B16	4.6337	.5820	172.0
28.	C1	4.1105	.7210	172.0
29.	C2	3.6047	.9585	172.0
30.	C3	3.7733	.9118	172.0
31.	D1	2.6802	.8766	172.0
32.	D2	2.7384	1.0519	172.0
33.	D3	2.9244	1.0203	172.0
34.	D4	3.6802	.8899	172.0
35.	D5	3.6105	.9142	172.0
36.	E1	4.6453	.5792	172.0
37.	E2	4.6163	.4877	172.0
38.	E3	3.9709	.9267	172.0
39.	E4	3.4186	.9729	172.0
40.	E5	4.3314	.6759	172.0

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 172.0

N of Items = 40

Alpha = .8423